THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AMONG THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICES IN STANGER

By

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this study was to determine whether a relationship exists between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. A sample of 73 employees from the South African Police Services – Stanger was utilised.

Data was collected using questionnaires and unstructured interviews. The job satisfaction questionnaire designed by Weiss, Dawis, Lofquist and England (1977) was used to measure the different dimensions of job satisfaction whilst the organisational commitment questionnaire developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) was used to measure the different dimensions of organisational commitment. The results indicated variations in the subject's levels of job satisfaction, whereas moderate levels of affective, normative and continuous commitment was found. The correlation analysis showed no significant relationship among the dimensions of organisational commitment (Affective, Normative and Continuance). In terms of job satisfaction, significant relationships occurred among pay, working conditions, supervision, opportunities for advancement and recognition but there was no significant relationship among pay and equitable rewards. No significant relationship occurred between the dimensions of job satisfaction and affective and continuance commitment but there was a significant relationship between job satisfaction dimensions and normative commitment. There was no significant difference in the organisational commitment dimensions and job satisfaction dimensions among gender. No significant difference was found between affective and continuance commitment among the other biographical variables. However, there was a significant difference in the level of normative commitment among the age group, home language group and ethnic group. A significant difference was found between the job satisfaction dimensions and the other biographical variables. According to the results of the multiple regression, opportunities for advancement was the best predictor of affective commitment, working conditions, supervision, relation with co-workers and equitable rewards were the best predictors of normative commitment and relation with co-workers was the best predictor of continuance commitment.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

DEDICATION

TO MY LATE BELOVED DAD, DR. TIMOTHY PAUL,

WHOSE MOTIVATION AND NUMEROUS SACRIFICES

DURING THE COURSE OF HIS LIFETIME ASSISTED ME

TO EARN THIS HIGHER DEGREE

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Introduction and Overview of the Study

1.1. Background

Job satisfaction and organisational commitment has grown in popularity in the literature of industrial/organisational psychology and organisational behaviour. The reason for the growing popularity in organisational commitment is part due to the positive organisational outcomes which research has shown as linked to organisational commitment such as turnover, job performance, and tardiness. Job satisfaction as been studied as an independent variable explaining such outcomes as direct performance, indirect performance, as well as physical and mental health. Increasing job satisfaction will increase productivity and profitability of the organisation, hence increasing the commitment of individuals in the organisation (Bateman & Strasser, 1984).

Organisational commitment is seen to be significant in understanding the work behaviour of employees in work organisations. Robbins (1996) defines organisational commitment as a state in which an employee identifies with a particular organisation and its goals, and wishes to maintain membership in the organization. Organisational commitment has been approached from a variety of conceptual and operational perspectives. Research has linked organisational commitment to important organisational outcomes such as turnover, job performance, absenteeism, job satisfaction, organizational effectiveness and tardiness (McShane & Van Glinow, 2003). The antecedents of organisational commitment include personal characteristics,

job characteristics, group-leader relations, organizational characteristics (Ko, Price, & Mueller, 1997). Three major organisational commitment dimensions exists, namely, a) affective commitment which refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organization,

b) Normative commitment which refers to the employees feelings of obligation to remain in the organization,

c) Continuance commitment which refers to commitment based on the costs that the employee associates with leaving the organization. Continuance commitment has two sub-dimensions, namely, personal sacrifice and lack of alternative (Allen & Meyer, 1990 cited in Dunham, Gruber & Castaneda).

Job satisfaction was studied mainly for its possible predictive usefulness in understanding various performance variables (Schultz, 1970). Job satisfaction is defined "as a pleasurable or positive emotional state, resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences." (Locke 1976:23). Locke (1976) explains that for researchers to understand job attitudes, they need to understand job satisfaction dimensions, which are complex and interrelated in nature. The common dimensions of job satisfaction are work, pay, promotions, recognition, benefits, working conditions, supervision, co-workers, company and management (Locke, 1976). The consequences of job satisfaction include job and life satisfaction, performance, productivity, turnover, absenteeism (Auerbach & Dolan, 1997).

The importance of organisational commitment and job satisfaction is to make sure that organisations achieve efficiency and effectiveness in the organization.

1.2. Motivation for the study

Auerbach & Dolan (1997) conducted research on the dimensions of organisational commitment and job satisfaction and have found either a positive or negative relationship between the dimensions. The nature of the relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction is still not thoroughly understood and is always a point of debate among researchers (Mathieu, 1991).

The subject of this research project was motivated by the growing importance of organisational commitment and job satisfaction in organisations, especially the South African Police Services. Through informal discussions with subjects from the SAPS it was revealed that the subjects were dissatisfied with their jobs which led to low organisational commitment. Therefore, this encouraged the researcher to examine the relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction at the South African Police Services in Stanger. The Stanger Police station was chosen because of its easy accessibility and they have shown interest in helping to conduct the research.

1.3. Objectives of the Study

> ➤ To determine whether there is a relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

> ➤ To conduct literature review on job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

> ➤ To assess the levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

> ➤ To examine the influence of the biographical variables on job satisfaction and organisational commitment respectively.

> ➤ To make recommendations.

1.4. Hypothesis

According to Sekaran (1992:79), "an hypothesis is an educated guess about a problem's solution. It can be defined as a logically conjectured relationship between two or more variables expressed in the form of testable statements".

1.4.1. Hypothesis 1

There is a significant correlation between the dimensions of job satisfaction (pay, working conditions, supervision, relation with co-workers, opportunities for advancement, equitable rewards, recognition) and the dimensions of organisational commitment (affective, normative and continuance commitment.

1.4.2. Hypothesis 2

There is a significant difference in the perceptions of the respective dimensions of organisational commitment (affective, normative and continuance) among the respective biographical variables (age, marital status, home language, ethnic group, highest education, length of service and gender).

1.4.3. Hypothesis 3

There is a significant difference in the perceptions of the respective dimensions of job satisfaction (pay, working conditions, supervision, relation with co-workers, opportunities for advancement, equitable rewards, recognition) among the respective biographical variables (age, marital status, home language, ethnic group, highest education, length of service and gender).

1.4.4. Hypothesis 4

The 7 dimensions of job satisfaction will significantly explain the variance in affective, normative and continuance commitment respectively.

1.5. Limitations of the study

> The study was conducted only at one branch in Stanger. The perceptions of employees from other branches were not included. A sample size of 73 was used out of 120.

> Some employees did not fill in the questionnaire as they were busy to participate in the study.

> Despite these limitations, it is safe to conclude that this study makes a substantial contribution to organizational commitment and job satisfaction.

1.6. Structure of the Study

1.6.1. Chapter 1

This chapter outlines the focus of the study and motivation of the study. The objectives, hypotheses and limitations of the study was evaluated.

1.6.2. Chapter 2

Commences with the literature review by focusing mainly on Job Satisfaction. The chapter focuses on definitions, components, theories, antecedents, consequences.

1.6.3. Chapter 3

This also entails a literature review on Organisational commitment. It focuses on definition, dimension, antecedents, correlates, consequences, advantages and disadvantages.

1.6.4. Chapter 4

This chapter entails the research methodology used in this study. The sampling technique, data collection methods and the research instruments that were used in this study are explained. This chapter also includes the various tests conducted in the statistical analysis.

1.6.5. Chapter 5

The presentation of the results is displayed with the aid of tables and reports.

1.6.6. Chapter 6

This chapter incorporates the discussion of results whereby the findings are compared and contrasted to results of previous research.

1.6.7. Chapter 7

This chapter deals with the recommendations based on the findings of the study and a conclusion will be drawn.

1.7. Conclusion

The purpose of this chapter was to outline the areas to be investigated and to formulate the objectives, hypothesis, and also indicates the limitation of the study. Literature relevant to the variables of interest will be discussed in the ensuing chapters. The research methodology to be adopted in this study will follow. The results obtained from the investigation will be presented in Chapter 5 and discussed in Chapter 6. The conclusions together with the recommendations of the findings are finally offered.

Chapter 2

Job Satisfaction

2.1. Introduction

Job Satisfaction has probably been the most frequently researched work attitude in the organisational behavior literature. According to Korman (1971), job satisfaction was studied mainly for its possible predictive usefulness in understanding various job performance variables. Job satisfaction has been studied as an independent variable explaining such outcomes as direct performance, indirect performance, as well as physical and mental health.

Job Satisfaction is actually a collection of related job attitudes that can be related to various job aspects, for example, a popular measure of job satisfaction measures, satisfaction in terms of five specific aspects of a person's job: pay, promotion, supervision, the work itself and co-workers (Hellreigel, Slocum, Woodman, 1998). Employees maybe satisfied with some aspects of the job and at the same time, dissatisfied with others.

Therefore, the employees' attitudes towards involvement and satisfaction with the job and commitment to the employing organisation have become of compelling interest to industrial psychologists because of their impact on behaviour at work (Robbins, 1993).

Job satisfaction therefore affects the overall well being of the organisation as it is an important theme in organisational research. Satisfied employees tend to create more positive working environments for organisations (Spector, 2000).

2.2 Definitions

Job satisfaction has been defined in various ways. Locke (1976:1300) defines job satisfaction "as a pleasurable or positive emotional state, resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences". Locke (1976) explains that for researchers to understand job attitudes, they need to understand job dimensions, which are complex and interrelated in nature. The common dimensions of job satisfaction are pay, promotions, recognition, benefits, working conditions, supervision, co-workers, company and management (Gruneberg, 1976).

Hannagan (1998:346) defines job satisfaction as "an all embracing concept that referred to job related attitudes concerning various job-related characteristics, such as organisation's structure, pay and reward policies, leadership behaviours, management styles, co-workers, etc".

O'Reilly, Chatman & Caldman (1991), refer to job satisfaction as an attitude that individual's maintain about their jobs and this attitude is developed from their perceptions of their job.

Job satisfaction was expressed by Robbins (1998:25) as "a general attitude towards one's job; the difference between the amount of rewards received and the amount they believe they should receive". The majority of authors postulate that job satisfaction can be formally defined "as the

degree to which individuals feel positively and negatively about their jobs" (Schermerhorn, Hunt, Osborne, 1991:55).

In examining job satisfaction, a distinction is usually made between a global feeling and a constellation of associated attitudes about various facets of the job, with the former providing overall information and the latter providing information on the aspects of the job, which produce dissatisfaction or satisfaction. As such, job satisfaction is alleged to be a global construct encompassing such specific aspects as satisfaction with work, supervision, benefits, promotion opportunities, working conditions, co-workers, and organizational practices. These various aspects are believed somehow to aggregate into the overall orientation termed job satisfaction (Griffin & Bateman, 1986).

2.3 Components of Job Satisfaction

Kamfer, Venter & Boshoff (1994), identified two components of Job Satisfaction, namely, intrinsic satisfaction and extrinsic satisfaction.

2.3.1 Intrinsic Job Satisfaction: Intrinsic satisfaction is one of the most powerful forms of satisfaction that assesses employees' affective reactions to the job, for example, employees' satisfaction with the freedom they have to choose their own methods of working, the recognition that employees receive for good work and the opportunities employees have to use their ability.

According to Widrich and Ortlepp (1994), intrinsic job satisfaction is believed to be an outcome of features of the job such as personal responsibility and the opportunity to use one's abilities. Intrinsic satisfaction refers to the elements that may reflect more direct influences of the job by individuals (Arvey, Bouchard, Segal & Abraham, 1989).

2.3.2 Extrinsic Job Satisfaction: Extrinsic job satisfaction is seen as a consequence of aspects such as pay and working conditions. Arvey, Bouchard, Segal & Abraham (1989) stated that extrinsic job satisfaction symbolizes the elements that explicitly represent the external work environmental conditions. External factors that contribute to job satisfaction include tasks that are challenging but not overwhelming, interesting work, having a sense of control over the work, comfortable working conditions, relatively low levels of stress, and work goal facilitation.

If the individual has high level of satisfaction, whether it's intrinsic or extrinsic, the performance will be significantly better than an individual with low satisfaction (Widrich and Ortlepp, 1994). According to Widrich & Ortlepp (1994), an individual's satisfaction can be altered by a variety of ways. The work itself is one way in which a person will respond to any sort of work which relates to intrinsic satisfaction, how they feel, what kind of personal drive they have to achieve a task (Widrich and Ortlepp, 1994).

Another way in which an individual's intrinsic or extrinsic satisfaction can be altered is through rewards. This includes the obvious reward, pay. Promotion is another reward that encourages an individual to do well. Recognition is another reward that employees can get if they do well at

their place of employment. These incentives work both positively and negatively. Apperception in the workplace is very important as it gives happiness to the atmosphere and motivation to the employees (Widrich & Ortlepp, 1994). The final way is the context of their work. This refers to the person's working conditions. Elements of this would include things like their hours, the quality or type of work and even things like where their office.

2.4. Theories of Job Satisfaction

An overview of the different theoretical approaches towards the study of job satisfaction is presented. The most popular are outlined below:

2.4.1. Hertzberg Two Factor Theory

The motivation-hygiene theory was one of the earliest theories of job satisfaction proposed by Frederick Herzberg (George & Jones, 1996). Snyder, (1974) cited in George and Jones, (1996) state that Herzberg's theory proposed that every worker has two sets of needs, namely, motivator and hygiene needs.

According to Herzberg, motivators are factors which, if present in the working situation, lead to satisfaction, but whose absence does not lead to dissatisfaction. Such factors include achievement, recognition and the intrinsic interest of the work itself (George & Jones, 1996).

Hygiene factors refer to the manner in which the work is actually performed. Hygiene factors, when inadequate, lead to job dissatisfaction, but which when adequate does not lead to job

satisfaction. It includes factors such as the physical working conditions, supervision, pay, and the level of job security (George and Jones, 1996).

According to Steers, Porter & Bigley (1996), Herzberg's theory has been subject to several important criticisms. King (1970) cited in Steers et al. (1996), argued that the model itself indicates five different interpretations and the current research is evidently not consistent with these interpretation. The model does not focus on individual differences and assumes that job enrichment (ie, promotions) benefits all employees. Furthermore, research has failed to support the existence of the two independent factors (motivators and hygiene factors) (Steers et al. 1996).

Despite the criticisms, Herzberg's theory has been widely read and has gained increased popularity with the majority of the managers (Robbins, 1998). By enabling employees a greater responsibility and control of their work, it can be largely attributed to Herzberg's findings and recommendations (Robbins, 1998).

Herzberg argues that the causes of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are separate and distinct. Hygiene factors such as working conditions, do not normally lead to feelings of satisfaction when the factors are good, except in the short term when the factors are newly introduced. On the other hand, when the factors are bad, it does lead to job dissatisfaction.

2.4.2. Social Reference Group Theory of Job Satisfaction

According to this theory, Korman (1977) states that job satisfaction is a function of, or is positively related to the degree to which the characteristics of the job meet the approval and the desires of the groups to which the individual looks for guidance in evaluating the world and defining social reality.

Blood and Hulin (1967) and Form and Geschwender (1962) have shown that socially and economically deprived people can, despite their underprivileged life situation, show an astonishingly high degree of job satisfaction. The probable reason for this is that such people seem not to evaluate their situation in terms of middle class aspirations, as many have assumed they do, or even in terms of their own needs and desires but seem to compare their own lot with that of their peers and neighbours who are equally deprived. In relation to this reference group, they may be relatively well off and hence relatively satisfied.

Korman, (1977: 218), criticizes this theory for being an incomplete explanation, since only some people go along with group opinions and group evaluation of organisational phenomena whereas many people are independent of these pressures. Korman (1977) assumes that it is only people with low self esteem who are strongly influenced by the social normative evaluations of their reference group, whereas people with high self esteem are more concerned with their own need fulfillment. Korman (1977:220) also argues that human behaviour is a complex, multiple caused activity, and there is little reason to think that a phenomenon as important as job satisfaction would be a function of just one set of factors.

The theory also states that if a job meets the interests, desires and requirements of a person's reference group, he will like it and if it does not, he will not like it (Korman. 1977)

2.4.3. Facet Model

The facet model of job satisfaction focuses primarily on work situation factors by breaking a job into component elements, or job facets, and looking at how satisfied workers are with each facet. The worker's overall job satisfaction is determined by summing the worker's satisfaction with each facet of the job. The facet model is useful because it forces managers and researchers to recognize that jobs affect workers in multiple ways (George & Jones, 1996).

2.4.4. Discrepancy Theory

Locke (1976) believed that satisfaction or dissatisfaction with a job depends on the discrepancy between what individual's desire and what individual's perceive they are receiving. A satisfied person would be one who perceives no difference between the 'desired' and the 'actual' consideration.

According to the discrepancy theory, a person's job satisfaction comes from what they feel is important instead of the fulfillment or unfulfillment of their needs.

To further explain this theory, Wexley and Yukl (1984:46) conclude that "if there is more than the minimally acceptable amount of some job factor and the excess is beneficial (extra pay), a person will be even more satisfied than when there is no discrepancy between the desired and the

actual amount. However, if the excess is perceived to be detrimental (extra workload, longer hours), the person will be dissatisfied as when there is less than the desired amount."

The discrepancy theory also focused on perception. Wanous and Lawler (1972) found that employees respond differently depending on how the discrepancy is defined. They concluded that individuals have varying feelings about the job and as such no one best way exists to measure job satisfaction. The appropriate way of defining and measuring job satisfaction depends on the purpose of the measurement.

It appears that it is natural for individuals to behave differently when their perceptions of what they desire and what they receive are distorted. Therefore, according to Berry (1997), the discrepancy theory proposes that dissatisfaction will occur when a person receives less than what they want.

2.5. Antecedents of Job Satisfaction

Several studies have shown that people with the same jobs and highly similar job conditions can vary considerably in their satisfaction (Spector, 2000).

According to Spector (2000), antecedents of job satisfaction can be classified into 3 different perspectives, i.e., environmental perspectives which investigates features of jobs and organisations that lead employees to be satisfied or dissatisfied, personality perspective, which purpose has been to show that certain types of people are inclined to like or dislike their jobs and

the interactionist perspective of person-job fit, which combines the environmental and personality approaches. Person-job fit recognizes that different people prefer different features of a job. It also attempts to learn which sorts of people are satisfied with which sorts of job conditions. Job satisfaction therefore, is the product of appropriately matching the individual to the job. Some of these factors are discussed below.

2.5.1 Pay

According to Locke (1976), the root of the desire for pay is the individual's desire to satisfy his physical needs (food, shelter, clothing, etc). Money also serves as a symbol of achievement, as a source of achievement, as a source of recognition and as a means of obtaining other values (eg. leisure, works of art, etc). To some it is a status symbol, to others it means security, to others it allows greater freedom of action in all areas of life. In some cases, salary is interpreted as reflecting management's concern for the individual employee. The basis of the desire for equitable pay is the desire for justice or fairness, that is, for returns or rewards commensurate with one's actions. Lawler (1971) cited in Gruneberg (1979) that pay was found to be reported as the job aspect with which the greater number of employees expressed dissatisfaction.

Research carried out by business schools on several South African companies an the result shows that over 60%of workers in the companies recognized that pay is just one way to motivate employees, but less than half create long term incentives across all levels, and co-ordinate this with short term incentives. (Sunday Times, 2003). Any successful business should have a managed pay scale competitive with the local labour market (external parity) and fair to all

employees (internal parity). If a business cannot compensate fairly and properly, it would not be able to attract or keep superior employees (Schmitt, 2003).

Survey carried out by the International Survey Research on employees in South African Companies shows that 60% of workers are dissatisfied with the pay they receive from their employers (Sunday Times, 2003). Poor pay often results in decreased motivation, decreased morale, poor work quality and increased turnover (Schmitt, 2003). The three major sources of pay dissatisfaction are dissatisfaction with the pay structure, dissatisfaction with the pay level and dissatisfaction with the merit increases. Employees are least satisfied with the link between their pay and their job performance (Hudson, 2001).

There exists a positive relationship between job satisfaction and pay (Internet 1, 2002). Although some studies have found that pay is not linked to job satisfaction, others have reported that pay is significantly associated with workers' job and satisfaction (Hamermesh, 1999). According to Hamermesh (1999), it is apparent that variations in pay affect job satisfaction. When pay is seen as being fair, based on job and individual skill levels, and community pay standards, satisfaction is likely to result (Robbins, 1996).

According to Patchen (1960) cited in Vroom (1964), if one person was compared with another person who was earning more but who was similar in his standing on dimensions related, the comparison would be dissonant and would be expected to lead to dissatisfaction on the part of the comparer. Similarly, if he compared himself to someone who was earning the same but who was

inferior in standing on dimensions related to pay, the comparison would be objectively dissonant and accompanied by dissatisfaction. However, if a person compared himself to someone who was earning more and who was superior on dimensions related to pay, or to someone who was earning the same and was similar on dimensions related to pay, it would be objectively consonant and would be expected to result in satisfaction.

Social norms and comparisons are important in determining job satisfaction not only with regard to wages, but with regard to all the determinants of job satisfaction (Strauss & Sayles, 1980). If people, particularly people that a worker respects, see the job as a good one – or one with which the worker should be satisfied, then the worker is more likely to be satisfied. However, if all the worker's friends have more challenging jobs than he has, he will be more dissatisfied than if all his friends shared his predicament (Strauss and Sayles, 1980).

Of central importance to an understanding of satisfaction with pay is the question of what factors are associated with pay. Lawler (1971), concluded that factors such as education, skill, job performance, age, seniority, sex, organisational level, time-span, non-monetary outcomes, amount of pay and payments method were all associated with satisfaction with pay (Gruneberg, 1979). When controlling for actual pay, it appears that the higher up one is in the organization, the less is one satisfied with pay. Job satisfaction depends to some extent on a comparison with what others are getting; an over-assessment of what others below you are getting is likely to lead to dissatisfaction. Schwab & Wallace cited in Gruneberg (1979), that sex was also related to pay in that females were more satisfied with pay than were males. Research indicates that individuals

who are overpaid are just as satisfied with their pay as, though not more satisfied than, equitably paid subjects (Locke, 1976).

2.5.2. Working conditions

According to Motazz & Pottas (1986), working conditions refer to as the extent to which there are adequate resources, physical facilities, workload, work hours, rest pauses and autonomy which are all determinants of an employee's job satisfaction. Robbins (1996) states that working conditions are seen to impact on job satisfaction as employees are concerned with their work environment for both personal comfort and facilitating doing good work. Studies demonstrate that employees prefer physical surroundings that are not dangerous or uncomfortable (Dessler, 1981). Temperature, light, noise and other environmental factors should not be at either extreme for example, having too much heat or too little light.

Additionally, most employees prefer working relatively close to home, in clean and relatively modern facilities and with adequate tools and equipment (Robbins, 1996). Most people do not give working conditions a great deal of thought unless they are extremely bad. Additionally when there are complaints about working conditions, these are nothing more than manifestations of other problems. For example, a manager may complain that the night crew has not properly cleaned his office, but his anger is actually a result of a meeting he had with the boss earlier in the day in which he was given a poor performance evaluation. However, in recent years, because of the increased diversity of the work force, working conditions have taken on new importance (Luthans, 1995).

The work role occupied by a person affects not only how he will use his working hours but also how he can spend his leisure time. A person's job usually influences the community in which he lives, the way in which other members of the community respond to him and the amount of time he spends with his family. If an individual visualizes his working hours as being too long, there would be a decrease in his level of job satisfaction, since he would regard his job as depriving him of sufficient leisure of family time. Therefore, the more supportive the working conditions, the more satisfied the employee. Herzberg cited in Dunnette (1976) argue that women tend to consider working conditions more important than men. It is also reasonably assumed that those who enjoy their work would view hours of work in exactly the opposite way from those who do not like their work. A good working fellowship facilitates for delivering good job and autonomy in the work.

In a review of the nursing literature, Lovgren, Rasmussen & Engstrom (2002), found strong connections between job satisfaction and the intention to remain in or leave the current employment. Identification of stressful encounters, involvement in the decision making processes and support at professional and emotional levels were identified as factors that improved the quality of life in the workplace. The work climate can therefore be seen as having a great influence on both comfort and productivity in organizations.

2.5.3 Supervision

In a review of work done at the Institute of Social Research, Zander and Quinn (1962) cited in Schultz (1970) states that job satisfaction is congruent with the immediate supervisor's personal

interest and support for the worker. This is certainly a key factor that would influence job satisfaction.

Luthans (1995) suggests that there are two dimensions for supervisory styles that affect job satisfaction. One is employee-centeredness, which is measured by the degree to which a supervisor takes a personal interest in the employee's welfare and tries to ensure that they achieve their personal goals. It is manifested in ways such as checking to see how well the subordinate is doing, providing advice and assistance to the individual, and communicating with the worker on a personal as well as an official level.

The other dimension is participation or influence, as illustrated by managers who allow their people to participate in decisions that affect their own jobs. In most cases this leads to higher job satisfaction (Luthans, 1995). For example a comprehensive meta analysis concluded that participation does have a positive effect on job satisfaction (Luthans, 1995). A participative climate created by the supervisor has a more substantial effect on workers' satisfaction than does participation in a specific decision (Miller & Monge, 1986).

The importance of supervision will vary from situation to situation and from time to time. Vroom (1964), for example cites evidence that there are often changes in satisfaction following changes in supervision. New supervisors with new styles of leadership are likely to introduce changes, which require individuals to change their habitual way of behaving. The 'new broom' is unlikely to be appreciated by those who have adopted the old methods. On the other hand, in

situations where grievances abound, a new supervisor may be able to increase satisfaction by remedying sources of discontent.

Quantitative evidence concerning the importance of supervision is inconclusive. Data compiled from 15 studies in which workers were asked what made them satisfied or dissatisfied with their jobs. Supervision was mentioned as a source of satisfaction more frequently than security, job content, company and management, working conditions and opportunity for advancement and wages. The only aspect of the job mentioned more frequently was relationships with co-workers. However, supervision appears fourth in the same list of jobs factors when they are mentioned as sources of dissatisfaction. It may be concluded that supervision is an important variable in determining both the levels of job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction of the worker (Vroom, 1964).

Burack and Smith (1977), see supervision received as an important determinant of job satisfaction since people need to feel comfortable with the guidance, recognition and equity in the evaluations they receive. Perhaps not surprisingly about 65% of employees dislike their bosses. Consequently, many employees dislike their jobs though they like the work they do.

According to Bragg (2002), when it comes to improving the workplace, the best place to start is to improve the people skills and management skills of bosses. By removing barriers, praising employees, taking responsibility, managing systems will help managers to increase employee job satisfaction.

Much of the research on supervision has been based on the assumption that supervisors can be characterized in terms of the degree to which they are considerate of the desires of their subordinates.

Vroom (1964), states that attempts by influential supervisors to help their subordinates achieve their goals will usually succeed and will result in higher job satisfaction, whereas similar attempts by non-influential supervisors are less likely to succeed and to affect satisfaction. In a hierarchical organisation the degree to which a supervisor satisfies the needs of his subordinates may be dependant not only on the supervisory methods and practices which he uses but also on the amount of his power in the larger organisation.

It becomes evident that supervision must be regarded as an important determinant of job satisfaction. Chetty (1983) cited in Seeman (1957), reported a positive relationship between the consideration of school superintendents and the job satisfaction of elementary school teachers.

Fleishman, Harris and Burtt (1955), cited in Vroom (1964) found a positive relationship between the consideration of foreman and the morale of their subordinates. Fleishman and Harris (1962), cited in Vroom (1964), found that in general low consideration and high structure were found to go with high grievances and turnover. Therefore, studies have proven that employees' satisfaction is increased when the immediate supervisor is understanding and friendly, offers praise for good performance, listens to employees opinions and shows a personal interest in them.

2.5.4 Relation with co-workers

As with pay, the importance of co-workers figures prominently as a factor in studies of job satisfaction. According to Robbins (1998), the employee gets more out of work than merely money or tangible achievements. Robbins (1993) states that for most employees, work also fills the need for social interaction. Therefore, having friendly and supportive co-workers leads to increased job satisfaction (Robbins, 1993).

According to Bryant (1972), states that one's co-workers, that is, fellow workers who have different specialties, and one's colleagues, that is fellow workers, who pursue similar occupational specialties, are not selected by choice, rather, they are more likely to be selected by necessity as dictated by the needs of the work itself.

Although an individual may take up work with his fellow workers as strangers, in time, the close daily association of working with them may result in the development of a strong social bond. For some, the lack of meaning in monotonous and unstimulating work may be offset only by the fact that interaction with other persons at the workplace may be rewarding.

There exists data, suggesting that worker's satisfaction with their jobs is related to their opportunities for interaction with others on the job. On the basis of interviews with workers in an automobile plant, Walker & Guest (1952), state that isolated workers disliked their jobs and gave social isolation as the principle reason. Richard & Dobryns (1957) cited in Vroom (1964:121), found that the morale of a group of workers in an insurance company was greatly lowered by the

environmental change, which restricted their opportunity for social interaction. Du Brin (1978), reported that when the opportunity for interaction with other workers decreases, job satisfaction suffers.

Studies generally find that employee satisfaction is increased when the immediate supervisor is understanding and friendly, offers praise for good performance, listens to employees opinions, and shows a personal interest in them (Robbins, 1993). George & Jones (1996) further maintains that co-workers can have a particularly potent influence on the job satisfaction levels of newcomers of the job.

It was also found that when individuals were allowed to choose their own work mates, then job satisfaction as well as turnover and costs all improved. Another possibility is that by allowing individuals to choose their work mates, people come to work in groups with roughly equal levels of skill and performance. Individual are thus able to work compatibly at their own pace. Therefore, where work groups are constituted in terms of similar levels of skill of individuals, satisfaction and productivity increase (Sterns, Alexander, Ralpha, Barret & Dambrot, 1983). People do not get equal amounts of satisfaction from interacting with other individuals, in all situations; only when workers choose their work-mates does satisfaction improve. It is clear that we derive satisfaction only from certain kinds of social interaction in certain kinds of situations (Gruneberg, 1979).

2.5.5. Opportunities for advancement

According to Locke (1976), satisfaction with promotions can be viewed, like pay, as a function of the frequency of promotion in relation to what is desired and the importance of promotion to the individual. While American culture has always stressed merit or ability to do the job as being the standard of justice in promotion, there are large subgroups of the population that do not share this view. Schein (1990) maintained that manager-anchored individuals would strive to climb to a high level in the organisation to enable them to integrate the efforts of others and be responsible for organisational output. These individuals desire the power and achievement of top positions.

Public firms and unionized firms are more likely than private and non-unionized firms to stress passing examinations and seniority as a basis for promotion. While equity is one factor that influences a person's value standard concerning desired number of promotions, it is not the only factor. An employee could appraise the promotion system in his company as fair, and yet still be dissatisfied with his chances for promotion simply because there was none. Such an individual's value standard would depend upon his personal ambitions and career aspirations (Locke, 1976). Alternatively, an individual might view the promotion system in his firm as unfair but still be personally satisfied with it, because he does not desire to be promoted. Since a promotion entails an increase in responsibility and work difficulty, an individual who does not feel up to such a challenge will not desire to be promoted. Promotions which require the individual to give up other important values may be unattractive to some employees (Bray, Campbell and Grant, (1974) cited in Dunnette (1976).

The roots of the desire for promotion would include the desire for psychological growth, the desire for justice, the desire for higher earnings and the desire for social status. Research conducted by Bettencourt and Brown (1997), suggests that employees who are given fair opportunities for promotions will be more satisfied than those who are not given these opportunities. Robbins (1996), states that individuals who perceive promotion as fair are likely to experience satisfaction from their jobs.

According to Bassett (1994), being promoted is an almost certain source of increased satisfaction to most workers. Failing to receive a promotion can increase dissatisfaction, but only if a promotion was expected.

Research indicates that females in comparison to males may have a more difficult time adjusting to promotion due to the higher level of importance placed on maintaining harmonious relationships. Men are more likely to be promoted than women and whites are more likely than blacks or Hispanics (Shelton, 2001).

2.5.6 Equitable rewards

According to Robbins (1998), employees want pay systems and promotion policies that they perceive as being just, unambiguous and in line with their expectations. When pay is seen as fair based on job demands, individual skill level and community pay standards, satisfaction is likely to result.

Many people willingly accept less money to work in a preferred location or in a less demanding job or to have a greater discretion in the work they do and the hours they work. But the key in linking pay to satisfaction is not the absolute amount one is paid, rather it is the perception of fairness (Robbins, 1998). Similarly, employees seek fair promotion policies and practices. Promotions provide opportunities for personal growth, more responsibilities, and increased social status. Individuals who perceive that promotion decisions are made fair are likely to experience satisfaction from their jobs (Robbins, 1993).

According to Lincoln & Kalleberg (1990) the rewards offered by an organisation may influence employees' attitudes towards their job and the organisation that they work for. Dunford (1992) states that the rewards that the employee views as positive should improve job satisfaction.

In the study examining the relative effects of reward size, job costs, and job alternatives on job satisfaction, Farell & Rusbult (1981) found that a combination of reward size and cost of values of the job were fairly consistent predictors of job satisfaction.

2.5.7 Recognition

For many individuals, achievement sooner or later requires external validation (recognition) if it is to be sustained. For example, the researcher who has his research reports consistently rejected by editors of journals rapidly becomes discouraged and his confidence (self esteem) is likely to suffer. Acceptance of material for publications gives recognition to the researcher and thus increases his feelings of self esteem. Thus, success produces a series of externally validated rewards, all of which have the effect of increasing the individual's self esteem (Gruneberg, 1979).

Virtually, all employees value being praised for their work and being given credit where credit is due, especially by supervisors and colleagues whose judgements they respect. Similarly, most employees disvalue being criticized or not getting credit for their work accomplishments. Locke (1976), found recognition to be one of the single most frequently mentioned event causing job satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

Another important function of recognition for work is that it provides feedback concerning the competence of one's job performance. Depending upon the form in which such feedback is given, it can be used to correct past errors and to set future goals for performance. The desire for recognition is typically attributed to the desire or need for self-esteem or a positive self concept (Dunnette, 1976). Recognition is as important to success as cash or merchandise prizes offered which also increases job satisfaction (Metzler, 1998).

2.6. Consequences of job satisfaction

A number of organizationally relevant behaviours are thought to be the result of job satisfaction. Luthans (1995) suggest that to society as a whole as well as from an individual employee's point, job satisfaction in and of itself is a desirable outcome. The aim is to consider how job satisfaction affects a variety of factors, some of economic and some of personal experience. The variables below have been examined as consequences of job satisfaction:

2.6.1 Absenteeism

Conventional wisdom suggests that absence from work is the byproduct of employee dissatisfaction. People who dislike their work will be more likely to miss work than people who like their jobs. Absence and satisfaction are more strongly related under some circumstances. Hackett and Guion (1985) in Spector (2000) found that absence correlated more strongly with some satisfaction facets than others. Satisfaction with the nature of the work correlated most strongly with absence.

According to Spector (2000), there exists an inconsistent and usually small connection between job satisfaction and absence. One possible reason for the small relation between satisfaction and absence is that a person can be absent for many reasons, including employee illnesses, family member illness, personal business and fatigue as well as just not feeling like going to work. Whereas some of these reasons might be associated with job satisfaction, others probably are not. For example, satisfaction might be associated with absence caused by not feeling to go to work, but it is not likely to be associated with absence caused by serious illness. Thus, overall absence is not likely to have a strong relation with job satisfaction. According to Robbins (1998) there exists a negative relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism, however this correlation is moderate. Although it makes sense that dissatisfied workers are more prone to miss work, other aspects have an impact on the relationship and reduce the correlation coefficient.

A study carried out by Ingham (1970) in Dunnette (1976), suggests that absenteeism could be affected by the type of satisfaction gained from the job. Ingham (1970) found that employees in

small plants were less likely to be absent than employees in larger plants despite being equal in degree of overall job satisfaction. However, employees in smaller plants felt a greater degree of personal obligation to the company than was the case with employees in larger plants, who worked mainly for money. While the conclusion for this study was not definitive, they suggest a number of hypotheses regarding causal factors which affect absenteeism aside from the amount of overall satisfaction.

Research has pretty well demonstrated an inverse relationship between satisfaction and absenteeism (Scott and Taylor, 1985). When satisfaction is high, absenteeism is low, when satisfaction is low, absenteeism tends to be high. However, as with the other relationships with satisfaction, there are moderating variables such as the degree to which people feel that their jobs are important. For example, research among the state government employees has found that those who believed that their work was important had lower absenteeism than did those who did not feel this way. Additionally, it is important to remember that while high job satisfaction will not necessarily result in low absenteeism, low job satisfaction is likely to bring about high absenteeism (Clegg, 1980).

2.6.2. Turnover

Quitting the job or turnover has been tied to job satisfaction. Many studies have shown that dissatisfied employees are more likely than satisfied employees to quit their jobs (Spector, 2000). One of the most consistent findings about job satisfaction is that it correlates negatively with turnover (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982).

Correlations between job satisfaction and turnover have been interpreted as indicating the effects of satisfaction of behaviour. One reason that it has been possible to demonstrate such a linkage between job satisfaction and turnover has to do with the designs of turnover studies and the nature of turnover.

Tett and Meyer (1993) maintain that job satisfaction is negatively related to turnover. However, other factors such as labour market conditions, expectations about alternative opportunities and length of tenure with the organization are important limitations on the actual decision to leave one's present job (Robbins, 1998).

According to Robbins (1998) evidence suggests that an important moderator of the job satisfaction-turnover relationship is the employee's level of performance. In particular, the level of satisfaction is less important in predicting turnover for superior performers.

Hulin (1966) in his study compared clerical workers who subsequently left the company and those who stayed. Job satisfaction measures were obtained from both groups prior to those who left their jobs. Turnover was related negatively to job satisfaction. The company made changes in the jobs to correct some of the dissatisfying factors mentioned by those who left. These changes led to significant decreases in turnover.

The consistency of the negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover has led investigators to look more closely at other factors that might be related to issues of turnover and

job satisfaction. Jackofsky and Peters (1983) argued that dissatisfaction with the job should only lead to turnover when the employees believed that alternative employment is available to them. Dissatisfaction leads to a search for alternative jobs and that search increases the likelihood that alternatives will be found. Jackofsky and Peters (1983) simply argued that, if this were true, only those who believe alternative jobs exist which they are likely to obtain will quit when they are dissatisfied. Data from a sample of retail employees in several south western cities confirmed this prediction, the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover was stronger among those employees who believed that they could find alternative employment (McCormick & Illgen, 1987).

Taylor & Weiss (1969) cited in Bass & Barrett (1972), while most of the studies have shown effects with groups of employees, that is, dissatisfied groups experience the greatest turnover, it has also been possible to show that these dissatisfied employees are most likely to quit. Thus, of over 460 employees of a discount store chain, 64% classified as "leavers" actually left. This compared with less than 20% of the "non-leavers" who quit.

Typically, turnover is considered to be very costly to an organization and attempts are made to reduce it. Dalton, Krackhardt, and Porter (1981), proposed however that turnover is a good way to allow the people who do not fit well into an organization to leave and thus to open up positions for others who might fit better. They gathered data from 1389 employees primarily from California Banks. Supervisors were asked to rate the performance of these employees and to judge the extent to which they thought each employee would be easy to replace. The researchers

classified those who were good performers and also difficult to replace as dysfunctional turnovers and those who were poor performers and easy to replace as functional turnovers. Of the 32% who quit voluntarily, 18% were classified as dysfunctional and 13% as functional. Conversely, some satisfied individuals may change their employment because of promotion, ambition and of course external personal reasons. However many facets of job satisfaction is related to turnover, including job content, supervisory practice, pay and social relationships (Gruneberg, 1979).

2.6.3 Productivity

An organisation is productive if it achieves its goals and does so by transferring inputs to outputs at the lowest cost. Productivity implies a concern for both effectiveness and efficiency. According to Locke (1976), good performance – good productivity leads to good employee attitudes.

The conditions under which high productivity would lead to high satisfaction would be:

!). When high productivity leads to the attainment of the individual's important job values for example, task values such as success and achievement, and rewards such as promotion, recognition, high earnings etc,

2). When such production was not attained at such a high cost as to undermine the pleasure of attainment e.g., fatigue, or to negate other values e.g. family relationships.

One of the main reasons for studying job satisfaction is undoubtedly the widely held view that whether a person is satisfied or not with his job has consequences for his productivity, for his likely stay within the organization and for his willingness to attend work regularly (Gruneberg, 1979).

With respect to productivity, the Hawthorne studies were interpreted by proponents of the 'Human Relations' school as showing that, under friendly supervision, the individual increased his productivity as a consequence of increased satisfaction. Research proves that an equally plausible alternative is that as productivity increased, so did friendly supervision, satisfaction resulted from increased productivity rather than caused it (Gruneberg, 1979).

Two different arguments have been put forward to account for the apparent failure to find a relationship. Firstly, Herzberg cited that satisfaction may lead to increased productivity but that the wrong measures of satisfaction are often used. Secondly, Lawler and Porter(1969) cited in Gruneberg (1979) that rather than higher satisfaction leading to higher productivity, it is higher productivity which leads to rewards which may or may not lead to increased satisfaction.

A number of reviews were done in the 1950s and 1960s covering dozens of studies that sought to establish the relationship between satisfaction and productivity (Brayfield and Crockett, 1955). These reviews could find no consistent relationship.

The early views on the satisfaction-performance relationship can be essentially summarized in the statement "a happy worker is a productive worker" (Robbins, 1996).A careful review of the research indicates that if there is positive relationship between satisfaction and productivity, the correlations are consistently low – in the vicinity of +0.14 (Laffaldano & Muchinky, 1985). The introduction of moderating variables has improved the relationship. For example, the relationship is stronger when the employee's behaviour is not controlled by outside factors. An

employee's productivity on machine-paced jobs, for instance, is going to be much more influenced by the speed of the machine than his or her level of satisfaction (Robbins, 1996).

Ostroff (1992) concluded that productivity leads to satisfaction rather than the other way around. Recent research indicates that when satisfaction and productivity data is gathered for the organization as a whole, rather than at the individual level, we find that organizations with more satisfied employees tended to be more effective than organizations with less satisfied employees (Ostroff, 1992).

2.6.4 Performance

It seems reasonable to accept that the more satisfied a worker is on his job, the more effective he will be in performing his assigned task. Gibson, Ivananevich & Donnelly (1994) maintains that for years many managers believed that a satisfied worker was a high performing employee.

Job satisfaction does not necessarily lead to improved performance. For example, from the results of twenty studies, Vroom (1964), found no simple relationship, and only a low median correlation (0, 14), between job satisfaction and job performance.

Although it is clear that performance and satisfaction are related, there are two opposite explanations. First, satisfaction might lead to performance, that is, people who like their jobs work harder and therefore perform better. Second, performance might lead to satisfaction.

People who perform well are likely to benefit from that performance, and those benefits could enhance satisfaction (Spector, 2000).

Jacobs and Solomon (1977) conducted a study and they hypothesized that satisfaction and performance would be related more strongly when performance leads to rewards. The rationale is that employees who perform well will be more satisfied because they have received rewards. They also found support for their hypothesis that a performance-reward linkage leads to stronger satisfaction-performance relations (Spector, 2000).

Findings from Herzberg (1959) and Schwab (1971), reported that both satisfaction and performance were jointly affected by the specific job experiences. Ford (1969) found that changing the challenge and responsibility of the work itself led to improvement in both job satisfaction and job performance (Locke, 1976).

According to Abu-Bader (2000) a consequence of low satisfaction is low job performance. It has been established in organizational behaviour literature that, although weak, job satisfaction has a positive influence on performance.

The characteristics of a worker's occupational group also make the relationship between satisfaction and performance a complicated one. Navy enlisted men were compared with civilian scientists in Antarctica. Significant positive correlations between job satisfaction and job

performance were obtained for the scientists, but no significant relationship was obtained for the enlisted men (Bass & Barrett, 1972).

2.6.5 Job and Life Satisfaction

Another important issue concerns the contribution of job satisfaction to overall life satisfaction-how satisfied a person is with his or her life. It is considered to be an indicator of overall happiness or emotional well-being. Studies of life satisfaction have found that it correlates with job satisfaction.

Rain, Lane & Steiner (1991) proposed three hypotheses about how job and life satisfaction might affect one another. The *spillover hypothesis* suggests that satisfaction or dissatisfaction in one area of life affects or spills over to another. Thus problems and dissatisfaction at home can affect satisfaction with work, whereas problems and dissatisfaction at work can affect satisfaction with home. The *compensation hypothesis* says that dissatisfaction in one area of life will be compensated for in another. A person with a dissatisfying job will seek satisfaction in other aspects of life or a person with a dissatisfying home might seek satisfaction in work.

The *segmentation hypothesis* people compartmentalize their lives and that satisfaction in one area of life has no relation to satisfaction in another.

The three hypotheses lead to contradictory predictions about the correlation between job and life satisfaction. Spillover predicts a positive correlation in that satisfaction at work will affect satisfaction in other areas of life. Compensation predicts a negative correlation because

dissatisfaction in one area of life will be compensated for by satisfaction in another. Segmentation predicts no correlation because people keep satisfaction with different areas of life separated (Spector, 2000).

The relationship between job and life satisfaction is a two-way process and it is just as possible that satisfaction with life in general affects satisfaction with the job, so that the causal aspect of the relationship is unclear.

Iris and Barrett (1972) carried out a study which succeeded in showing that job satisfaction can act to affect life satisfaction. They compared the job and life satisfaction of two groups of foreman from different departments in a chemical firm. For those foremen in a bad job situation, negative correlations were obtained between importance of job elements and life satisfaction. In contrast, there was a positive relationship for foreman in a favourable job situation. Thus, those foremen with unfavourable jobs who believed that work was important tended to be dissatisfied with life. Conversely, foreman in the unfavourable jobs who believed work to be unimportant were more apt to be satisfied with life in general. The same mechanisms may be operating for younger and older workers. If conditions are favourable, it is healthy to want to progress and believe in the positive aspects of the job. If conditions are not favourable, it is better to downgrade the importance of the job situation (Bass & Barrett, 1972).

The relationship between job and life satisfaction is complex, depending on personality factors, the job and personal circumstances. When relationships do exist, this might be because a

cheerful individual will enjoy both work and other life factors where an unsociable individual would complain about both.

2.7. Conclusion

Job Satisfaction is an important variable to consider when evaluating an organisation's success. Individual's enter organizations with a set of expected needs and expect the organization to satisfy these needs. One of these expectations is job satisfaction. Whether this need is satisfied depends on a variety of factors, among them, the capability of the individual and the sincerity of the company to promote the needs of the employees. Numerous theories of job satisfaction have been covered. Job satisfaction is more of an internal state and could for example be associated with a feeling of personal achievement. Job satisfaction is a complex concept and difficult to measure objectively.

Factors influencing job satisfaction include pay, working conditions, supervision, relation with co-workers, opportunities for advancement, equitable rewards and recognition.

Consequences of job satisfaction on employee performance cover the areas of absenteeism, turnover, productivity, performance and job and life satisfaction. Despite many theories and studies there are still doubts as to how to manage an organization so that the employees have high job satisfaction.

Chapter 3

Organisational Commitment

3.1. Introduction

The study of organisational commitment has grown in popularity in the literature of industrial/organizational psychology and organisational behaviour. For over a decade now organisational researchers have been studying organisational commitment and its relationships with situational characteristics, attitudes, and behaviour of employees. The reason for this growing popularity is due to the positive organisational outcomes which research has shown as linked to organisational commitment.

Research has linked organisational commitment to important organisational outcomes such as turnover, job performance, absenteeism, job satisfaction, organisational effectiveness and tardiness (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). According to research, interest in studying organisational commitment has continued for a number of reasons. It consistently has been shown to be related to: a) employee behaviours such as job search activities, turnover, absenteeism, and to a lesser extent, performance effectiveness; b) attitudinal, affective and cognitive constructs such as job satisfaction, job involvement, and job tension; c) characteristics of the employees job and role, including autonomy and responsibility, job variety, task identity and role conflict and ambiguity, and d) personal characteristics of the employee, such as age, sex, need for achievement and job tenure. This range of relationships, coupled with the belief that organisational commitment is a relatively stable attitude over time when compared to job satisfaction (Porter et al. 1974).

The desirable consequences of organisational commitment have encouraged organisations to actively seek out ways to enhance commitment among their employees (Bateman & Strasser, 1984).

According to Ellermers, Gilder and Van Den Heuvel (1998), organisational commitment is a rather broad concept that refers to the employee's long tem involvement with and influence in an organization. "Employees who are committed to their organisation are happy to be members of it, believe in and feel good about the organisation and what it stands for, and intend to do what is good for the organisation" (George & Jones, 1990).

Mathieu & Zajac (1990) maintain that organisations will always value commitment amongst their employees, as it tends to reduce withdrawal behaviours such as lateness and turnover. Katz & Kahn (1978) cited in Mathieu and Zajac (1990) maintains further that committed employees are more likely to engage in extra-role behaviours such as creativeness and innovativeness, which often keeps an organisation highly competitive. From a larger perspective, society as a whole tends to benefit from employees' organisational commitment in terms of lower rates of job involvement and perhaps higher national productivity or work quality or both.

Mowday, Koberg, & McArthur (1984) have suggested that gaining a greater understanding of the process related to organisational commitment has implications for employees, organisations, and society as a whole. Employees' level of commitment to an organisation may make them more eligible to receive both extrinsic (eg, wages and benefits) and psychological (eg. intrinsic job

satisfaction and relationships with co-workers) rewards associated with membership (Mowday et al, 1984).

3.2. Definition

Several distinct views of commitment have evolved and have become well established over the years, making it unlikely that any one approach will dominate and be unanimously accepted as the correct definition of commitment (Meyer, Allen & Gellatly, 1990). Meyer et al. (1990) maintains further that it is important, that various different approaches be identified, their differences highlighted and where necessary their differential links to other variables of interest (eg, job performance) need to be established.

Meyer et al. (1990) postulates that two distinct views of commitment were provided. Firstly, Porter Steers, Mowday & Boulian (1974) cited in Meyer et al (1990:711) referred to organisational commitment as "the strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization". On the other hand, Becker (1960) cited in Meyer et al (1990:711) described organisational commitment as "the tendency to engage in consistent lines of activity because of the perceived cost of doing otherwise or leaving the organisation".

According to Newstrom and Davis (1993), organisational commitment is defined as the degree to which an employee identifies with the organisation and wants to continue participating. Like a strong magnetic force attracting one metallic object to another, it is a measure of the employee's willingness to remain with a firm in the future. It often reflects the employee's belief in the

mission and goals of the firm, willingness to expend effort in their accomplishment and intentions to continue working there.

According to Grifffin (1996:456), organisational commitment is referred to as "an attitude that reflects an individual's identification with and attachment to the organisation itself".

Mowday, Porter &Steers (1982) cited in Luthans (1995:130) defined organisational commitment as a "strong desire to remain a member of a particular organisation, willingness to exert high levels of effort on behalf of the organisation, belief in and acceptance of, the values and goals of the organisation".

Moorhead and Griffin (1995) maintains that a person with a high level of commitment is likely to see himself as a true member of the organization and a person with less organisational commitment is more likely to see himself as an outsider.

From the definitions above, it can be seen that organisational commitment refers to an individual's attachment, identification, willingness and loyalty to the organisation.

3.3. Dimensions of Organisational Commitment

Allen & Meyer (1990) devised a three-component conceptualization of organisational commitment, which they labeled 'affective or attitudinal, continuance or behavioural and normative' commitment. It is contended that the ideas put forward by Allen & Meyer (1990)

tend to bring the definition of organisational commitment closer to the practical meaning of the concept (Camilleri, 2002). In relation to the three-component conceptualization, an employee may be seen to experience each component of organisational commitment to varying degrees (Kamfer et al 1994). The three-component model of organisational commitment proposed by Allen & Meyer (1990) has combined a variety of alternative conceptualization. Each component develops as the result of different experiences and implications for on-the-job behaviour.

3.3.1. Affective Commitment

Affective commitment involves the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organisation (Luthans, 2002). The identification, involvement and attachment of employees indicate they are being appreciated by their organisation and they in turn are placed in a position to assist in achieving its goals. Employees adopt management values or believe that their values and goal are compatible (Weisener & Millet, 2001).

Allen & Meyer (1990) found that affective commitment was best predicted by work experiences that promote feelings of comfort in the organisation (eg. Organisational dependability) and personal competence (eg. job challenge).

Allen & Meyer (1990) argue that employees with a strong affective commitment remain with the organisation because they want to, whereas those with strong continuance commitment remain because they need to. According to Meyer & Allen (1991), employees whose experiences within the organisation are consistent with their expectations and satisfy their basic needs tend to

develop a stronger affective commitment to the organisation than do those whose experiences are less satisfying.

Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson & Sava, (1986) cited in Shore & Wayne (1993), argue that employees who perceive a high level of organisational support are more likely to feel an obligation to "repay" the organization in terms of affective commitment and work related behaviour.

Affective commitment was found to be positively related and continuance commitment negatively with supervisor ratings of job performance and promotability (Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin & Jackson, 1989 cited in Meyer at al 1990).

Studies by Mathieu & Zajac (1990) cited in Hackett, Bycio and Hausdorf (1994) revealed positive relationships involving affective commitment and age and length of service. Dunham, Grube, & Castaneda (1994) maintains that employees with low affective commitment will choose to leave an organisation, whereas those with high affective commitment will choose to stay longer because they believe in the organisation and its mission.

3.3.2. Continuance Commitment

Continuance commitment involves commitment based on the costs that the employee associates with leaving the organisation. Continuance commitment is more about "perceived economic

advantages accrued in one's current job, relative to alternative employment opportunities (Eisenberger, Fasolo & Davis La-Mastro, 1990:51).

Continuance commitment presumably develops as employees recognize that they have accumulated investment or 'side bets', which would be lost if they were to leave the organisation or as they recognize that the availability of comparable alternatives is limited (Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993). This led to the formulation of the "side bet theory".

The side-bet theory was developed by Becker (1960) cited in Akhtar & Tan (1994). According to this theory, employees make certain investments or side-bets in their organisation, e.g., tenure towards pension, promotions, work relationships and these investments then become sunk costs which decrease the chances of external employment opportunities (Akhtar & Tan, 1994). It is furthermore assumed that commitment will increase as the number of side-bets and the employee's age increase, resulting in employees becoming increasingly "locked in" to the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1984).

The costs assessed by the individual may, however, not only be monetary costs, but include social, psychological and other costs associated with a change in behaviour (Kamfer et al., 1994). Continuance commitment can be seen to be an outcome of the exchange relationship between the employee and the organisation, and the level of continuance commitment depends on the extent to which this exchange relationship favours the employee (Kamfer et al. 1994).

3.3.3. Normative Commitment

According to Mckenna (1994:288), normative commitment is defined "as the obligation and responsibility felt by individuals in the organisation. The employees feel it is their responsibility to help the organisation achieve its goals. These employees are not restricted by age or length of service to stay in an organisation". Based on this definition, employees with normative commitment can stay with the organisation. They can have job opportunities and the costs associated with leaving their organisation may be minimal. The employee with normative commitment will help their organisation become successful.

Employees with normative commitment believe people ought to be loyal to their employer and are obliged to remain with them (Cohen & Kirenmey, 1995). The feeling of obligation and loyalty stops an employee with normative commitment from leaving an organisation. Whatever happens to an organisation be it positive or negative will affect employees with normative behaviour. Allen & Meyer (1990) for example found that an employee would have strong normative commitment to the organisation if significant others (eg. relatives) have been long term employees of the organisation and have stressed the importance of organisational loyalty.

Wiener (1982) cited in Mathieu & Zajac (1990) suggested that organisational environments may act as normative influences and affect employees'organisational commitment by shaping their beliefs systems. Wiener (1982) maintains that individuals with a high need for affiliation will become most committed to an organization that offers a supportive environment; alternatively,

individuals with a need for achievement may become most committed in a competitive environment.

Normative commitment "develops on the basis of those socialization experiences in an individual's early life that encourage sustained commitment to one's employer. These include family based experiences concerning work such as sanctions against job hopping (Allen et al. 1996). Whatever is taught to employees, when they are still young, may still affect their future commitment to their organisations. Employees may not know the rules of an organisation but because of early socialization, they enter their work place with an idea of having a long-term commitment.

Research has shown that normative commitment is the weakest of the three components, and accounts for only 15.8% of the variance in the commitment dimensions (Myers & Miller, 1997). It has also been found that normative commitment is ignored in 85% of studies and rarely yields significant information (Myers & Miller, 1997). According to Kamfer, Venter & Boshoff (1994), various studies state that the normative and affective dimensions of commitment are inadequately distinguishable since both are related to value or attitudes. Research conducted within the South African industry provides empirical evidence of an affective or attitudinal dimension and a calculative dimension of organisational commitment (Kamfer et al., 1994).

3.4. **Organisational commitment and other variables**

Previous empirical research has classified organizational commitment as an independent or dependent variable (Spector, 2000). Organisational commitment is discussed in three general categories: determinants, correlates and consequences. The variables in each of these broad categories are depicted in Figure 3.1.

Personal characteristics, group-leader relations, organizational characteristics, job characteristics and role characteristics have generally been considered as determinants of organisational commitment (Mowday et al. 1982).

Affective response (i.e. motivation and job satisfaction) represents a category of variables that, like commitment, describe individuals' psychological reactions to the work environment. These variables are simply considered as correlates of commitment.

Finally, behaviours are generally considered to be consequences of organisational commitment. Undoubtedly, over time there is some amount of reciprocal causation between organisational commitment and many of the variables. For the present purposes, however, this classification scheme provides a useful method for discussing the results (Mowday et al. 1982).

FIG: 3.1. CLASSIFICATION OF ANTECEDENTS, CORRELATES AND CONSEQUENCES OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

ANTECEDENTS

Personal Characteristics

Age
Sex
Education
Marital Status
Position Tenure
Perceived Personal Competence
Ability
Salary
Protestant Work Ethic
Job Level

Role Status
Role Ambiguity
Role Conflict
Role Overload

Job Characteristics
Skill Variety
Task Autonomy
Challenge
Job Scope

Group / Leader Relations
Group Cohesiveness
Leader Communication
Participative Leadership

Work Experience

CORRELATES

Motivation
Overall
Internal
Job Involvement
Stress
Occupational Commitment
Union Commitment

Job Satisfaction
Overall
Intrinsic
Extrinsic
Supervision
Co-Workers
Promotion
Pay
Work itself

CONSEQUENCES

Job Performance
Others Ratings
Output Measures
Perceived Job Alternatives
Intention to search
Intention to Leave
Attendance
Lateness
Turnover

ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Source: Mathieu, J.E & Zajac, D.M., A Review and Meta –analysis of Antecedents, Correlates and Consequences of Organizational Commitment, Psychological Bulletin, (1990) 108(2),p.174.

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3.4.1. Antecedents of Organisational Commitment

A large body of work has focused on the determinants of organisational commitment and several important classifications of variables have emerged from this stream of research. The following factors relating to organisational commitment were identified, that is, personal characteristics, role characteristics, job characteristics, group leader relations, organisational characteristics (Ko, Price, Mueller,1997).

The following factors below were considered likely to create organisational commitment:

3.4.1.1. Personal Characteristics

The degree to which individuals are committed to their companies and with their jobs depend on the kind of people they are as well as on the kind of work they do. The following are personal variables which comprise of the individual characteristics that employees bring to or experience in the organisation (Steers, 1997).

a) Age

A basic finding of much research on work attitudes is that older workers are more committed to their employing organisations and more satisfied with their jobs than younger employees (Angle and Perry, 1986). Meyer and Allen (1990) suggested that older workers become more attitudinally committed to an organisation for a variety of reasons, including greater satisfaction with their jobs, having received better positions and having cognitively justified their remaining in an organisation. Many young people are disappointed with their first jobs because they fail to find sufficient challenge and responsibility (Shultz & Shultz, 1998).

According to Allen & Meyer (1990), older workers with high tenure may feel tied to an organisation by pension funds and company-specific training. May researchers have suggested that age should be more highly related to calculative commitment. This relationship is typically attributed to limited alternative opportunities and greater sunk costs in later years (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

b) Gender

For many years, researchers found that women were less strongly committed to their jobs than men. This makes sense if we consider that the less involving, lower level jobs that women have traditionally performed are unlikely to provide any strong sources of attraction. However, women are more likely to work in higher level, more gratifying jobs (Bruning & Snyder, 1983).

According to Angle & Perry, (1986), women, in the United States of America are more committed to their organisations than men. One explanation for the greater commitment of women to their organisations is that they have more to lose by changing companies, and have fewer opportunities to obtain comparable jobs elsewhere. Another explanation for the commitment of women employees is that they have generally had to overcome more barriers to attain their positions in the company. They may place greater values on their organisational attachments than do men (Mowday et al. 1982). The fewer employment alternatives available to women also help to explain their greater job satisfaction (Angle & Perry, 1986). With fewer jobs to choose from, they have lower expectations as to what constitutes a good job and thus are

satisfied with less (Angle & Perry, 1986). As time is passing by, gender differences in organisational committed has disappeared (Angle & Perry, 1986).

c) Education

In advanced industrial societies, education is a key indicator of social position as well as a major source of variation in status and economic rewards. Consistent with previous research on education and work attitudes, better educated Americans are less committed to their companies (Mowday et al. 1982) and less satisfied with their jobs (Kalleberg, 1977). Mowday et al. (1982) concluded that this inverse relationship may result from the fact that more educated individuals have higher expectations that the organisation may be unable to meet. It may also be that more educated employees have a greater number of jobs options and are less likely to become entrenched in any one position or company, while simultaneously raising job expectations that are likely to be met (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

d) Position and Organisational Tenure

The general assumption is that as individuals accumulate more years with a company, they are likely to acquire greater investments (eg. Pension plan contributions). According to Gregersen & Black (1992), people who have more tenure with their organisations are more highly committed to them than those who have been employed for shorter periods of time. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) assert that the number of years spent in the organisation also increases employees' psychological attachment, as well as the internalization of norms (Hackett et al. 1994). Employees who are new to an organisation usually experience role strain (role conflict and

ambiguity) which can affect their commitment. Role strain will have a negative influence on an employee with longer tenure (Mathieu, 1991). It is important to distinguish tenure with the organisation from tenure in a particular position. Naturally, the two concepts will be related to the extent employees have not changed jobs within an organisation.

Organisational tenure is likely to be a better surrogate measure of side bets. Years spent in an organisation are likely to yield greater side bets, such as a pension plan, and develop greater calculative commitment (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990).

e) Salary

Salary is generally considered to represent a side bet and to thereby increase continuance commitment. Salary levels may also increase feelings of self-esteem and thereby account for the positive relationship with attitudinal commitment (Koike, 1983).

Certain systems of starting workers at low salaries and then incrementing their incomes through bonuses, seniority raises and family allowances may reassure employees that, though their earnings are low at the onset of their careers, their patience and loyalty to the firm will in the long run be rewarded (Koike, 1983).

f) Positive and Negative Affectivity

Positive affectivity is the extent to which an individual feels enthusiastic over time and across situations while negative affectivity is the extent to which an individual experiences aversive emotional states over time and across situations (Watson et al. 1993).

Although there is little empirical evidence on the relationship between the personality traits of positive and negative affectivity and organisational commitment, it has been envisage that differential relationships based on the various characteristics are attributed to these types of individuals. Positive affective employees for example report greater self efficacy, an increased tendency to actively control their environment and seek task and informational support from supervisors and co-workers (George 1992 & Judge, 1993), while negative affective employees are less inclined to seek to control their work environment, are less likely to seek communications from supervisors and co-workers that offer task and informational support, and are more susceptible to events that result in negative experiences or emotions (George, 1992 & Judge, 1993).

Based on these characteristics, positive affective employees would be expected to identify with and internalize the norms of the organisation, while at the same time displaying lower continuance commitment. Negative affective employees would be less likely to display attitudinal and normative attachment, but more likely to remain given the perceived lower alternatives and high sacrifice of leaving (George, 1992 & Judge, 1993).

g) Work Motivation

Work motivation is the normative belief in the importance of work in general (Kanungo, 1982). Employees high in motivation tend to exert considerable effort (Mowday et al. 1982), which is rewarded by the organisation. Thus, employees' attitudinal and moral commitment is increased; however, there is a simultaneous decrease in continuance commitment as they are able to find alternative jobs in the labour market (Mowday et al. 1982).

3.4.1.2 Job Characteristics

Job characteristics variables have spanned from broad measures of job scope, challenge, or motivating potential to specific measures like task identity, feedback, responsibility and autonomy (Griffin and Bateman, 1986). Although the relationships between various job characteristics and organisational commitment have been examined in many studies, no theoretical models have been proposed to explain why they should be related. Hackman and Oldham's (1976) job characteristics model suggest that enriched jobs are likely to yield higher organisatioanl commitment (Steers, 1997). This is influenced by Matthew & Hamel (1989) who found that organisational commitment tends to be high among individuals whose jobs are highly enriched.

Skill variety and organisational commitment as a moderate correlation (Still, 1983). Still (1983) examined attitude differences between full and part time employees and found a slight negative correlation between skill variety and commitment for part time employees, who were

predominantly students. This suggests that aspects of the job may have little impact on commitment levels of employees for whom work is a secondary role.

Autonomy refers to the amount of discretion an employee is able to exercise on the job. There was a low positive correlation between autonomy and organisational commitment (Still, 1983). Job challenge correlated positively with organisational commitment. Although job challenge is not formally a component of the job characteristics model, it does follow that more challenging jobs should yield higher organisational commitment, particularly for employees with high growth need strength. However, no study to date has tested this relationship directly (Still, 1983).

The more general scope variable (generally computed as the average of the job characteristic model components) correlated more highly and more consistently with commitment than any of the three components previously listed. Stone & Gueutal (1985:391) conducted an empirical study of the dimensions along which characteristics of the jobs are perceived, and concluded that "it seems that individuals do not view jobs as having certain levels of variety, autonomy, task significance and so on but instead see jobs in terms of a summary dimension that might be labeled job complexity". The results suggested that jobs that are perceived to be more complex or perhaps enriched yield higher commitment levels.

3.4.1.3 Group-Leader Relations

Factors affecting productivity, job satisfaction, and commitment to the organisation are complex. Authors and researchers have postulated a relationship between the leadership of an organisation

and the productivity, commitment and job satisfaction of employees (Argyris, (1964), McGregor (1961). Current research has identified that the leadership of an organisation affects organisational outcomes and influences those served by these organizations (Glisson and Durick, 1988).

The following factors related to group-leader relations influence organisational commitment

a) Group cohesiveness

Stone & Porter (1975) and Welsch & LaVan (1981) reported positive correlations between group cohesiveness and organisational commitment, although Howell & Dorfman (1981) obtained a negative relationship. The studies sampled different populations, all assessed attitudinal commitment and none offered any clear explanation for their findings.

b) Leader Communication

According to Bruning & Snyder (1983), a supervisor who provides more accurate and timely types of communication enhances the work environment and thereby is likely to increase employees' commitment to the organisation.

c) Participatory Leadership

Group leader relations can significantly influence the degree of employee commitment to organizational values and goals. The more flexible and participative management styles can strongly and positively enhance organisational commitment (Gaertner & Nollen, 1989). Gaertner

& Nollen (1989) states that these styles tend to decrease role stress and thereby increase employee commitment.

Relations between participatory leadership and organisational commitment were reported in Jermier and Berkes (1979) and was found that participatory leadership was most effective at influencing the commitment levels of police officers working in unpredictable environments. Rhodes & Steers (1981) found a higher correlation between participatory leadership and organisational commitment in worker owned as compared with conventional organisations.

3.4.1.4 Work Experience

Work experience as a determinant of organisational commitment is influenced by many factors. Work experience or factors involving treatment of employees during their membership within an organisation are related to commitment. These include pay equity, supervisory relations and social investments (Fukami & Larson, 1984). The employees' level of commitment will decline if they find themselves in a situation where work experiences encountered are unpleasant. They will not be happy in an environment where they feel unwelcome (Griffin & Bateman, 1986).

The influence of work experience might be greater in early employee tenure with the organisation when commitment is in the process of development. New employees enter an organisation with optimism, attributable in part to their educational experiences (Meyer & Allen, 1988). Young employees who have never worked before are good examples for this situation. These employees will have their own positive image about the organisation and as months or years pass by they

may realize experiences encountered are inconsistent with their expectations. The negative work experiences encountered by these employees can affect their level of commitment to the organisation (Griffin & Bateman, 1986).

Employees who think their organisations support them should put forth more effort and perform better (Orpen, 1994). The support experienced will make employees feel accepted by an organisation and increase their level of commitment. The employees can get deeper insight into their work by enrolling for classes offering more information about the job in order to help an organisation. Employees who do not feel their organisation's support are likely to resign and join other institutions (Orpen, 1994).

3.4.1.5 Role Characteristics

Mowday et al. (1982) proposed role characteristics as made up of role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload. Role characteristics result from perceptions of the work environment and then influence affective responses. Employees who report greater levels of role strain also tend to report low levels of organisational commitment.

3.5 Correlates of Organisational Commitment

Correlates are variables of interest that have demonstrated relationships with organisational commitment.

3.5.1 Motivation

Mowday et al. (1982:230) proposed that "highly committed employees are thought to be motivated to exert high levels of energy on behalf of the organisation". It would also follow that internal motivation (eg. feelings of accomplishment and self fulfillment) should be more highly related to affective commitment, whereas external motivation (i.e., that derived from the attainment of tangible rewards, such as a cash bonus) should be more related to continuance commitment.

3.5.2 Job Involvement

Morrow (1983:488) drew a distinction between organisational commitment and job involvement and defined the latter as "the degree to which a person is identified psychologically with his/her work". The primary distinction between the two concepts is that job involvement describes an employee's attachment to his or her job whereas organisational commitment describes as attachment to between an employee and the organisation.

One would expect the two variables to be correlated to the extent that an organisation provides employees with jobs that they desire. Furthermore, it follows that job involvement should correlate more highly with affective commitment as compared to continuance commitment, as employees may become committed to an organisation and maintain membership because it offers numerous side bets, even though they may not be psychologically attached to their jobs (Morrow, 1983).

3.5.3 Stress

Several studies (eg Bateman & Strasser, 1984, Hrebiniak & Alluto, 1974) defined stress as a composite of role strains, often measured by summing role conflict, ambiguity and overload items into a single index. Other measures used included a felt stress scale used to measure work related and non work related stressors (Parasuraman, 1982) and a work related anxiety scale (Cook and Wall, 1980).

Intuitively, stress should relate negatively to employees' attachment to an organisation. However, it is also likely that employees who become attached to and remain with an organisation because of side bets are likely to experience greater strain. Thus, one can postulate a positive correlation between strain and continuance commitment (Bateman & Strasser, 1984).

3.5.4 Occupational Commitment

Morrow (1983) discussed occupational commitment in terms of an employee's commitment to his or her occupation, profession or career. Organisational commitment focuses on one's attachment to a particular occupational group or profession. Overall, occupational commitment correlated with organisational commitment (Aranya & Ferris, 1983).

3.5.5 Union Commitment

Five studies examined the relationship between organisational commitment and union commitment and yielded a correlation. It was expected that the relationship between organisational commitment and union commitment would be moderated by factors such as

current-management-union relations. Angle and Perry (1986) examined the extent to which dual commitment (a measure that asks directly whether one is committed both to the organisation and to the union) existed among bus drivers sampled from 22 different companies. They found that a higher degree of dual commitment existed in more co-operative climates. This relationship was moderated by the individuals' degree of participation in union activities. Dual commitment was highest among more active drivers in co-operative climates. The findings from this study suggest that the correlation between union and organisational commitment is likely to be moderated by both situational and individual characteristics (Angle & Perry, 1986).

3.6 Job Satisfaction

The influence of job satisfaction and its components is one of the more thoroughly investigated topics in the organisational commitment literature. The findings by Mathieu et al. (1990) illustrate that the correlations between job satisfaction and organisational commitment are uniformly positive. Separating job satisfaction into intrinsic satisfaction, extrinsic satisfaction and its components yielded corrected correlations in the range of extrinsic satisfaction to satisfaction with work itself (Mathieu et al. 1990).

3.7. Consequences of Organisational Commitment

Organisational commitment is said to influence employee performance, turnover and also predict the withdrawal behaviours of employees (Spector, 2000). The following variables have been examined with regard to organisational commitment as an independent variable.

3.7.1 Performance

Mowday et al. (1982) concluded that the least encouraging finding in the organisational commitment literature was the weak relationship organisational commitment demonstrates with job performance. It has been found that organizational commitment and job performance appear to be for most part unrelated. The majority of studies have shown that organizational commitment is not strongly related to performance or productivity (Weisner & Millet, 2001).

However, in a study targeted directly at job performance, it was found that affective commitment correlated positively with job performance among first level managers, while continuance commitment correlated negatively with job performance (Griffin & Bateman, 1986). Konovsky & Cropanzano (1991), using independent measures of performance, found that performance was positively related to affective commitment and negatively related to continuance commitment. Normative commitment was not examined in their study. Camilleri (2002) states that those employees with strong affective commitment will choose to be absent less frequently and will be motivated to offer a high performance.

Although higher levels of commitment may relate to improved job performance in some situations, research studies suggest that commitment has relatively little direct influence on performance in most instances (Larson & Fukami, 1984).

3.7.2 Withdrawal Behaviours

Organisational commitment has most often been used to predict withdrawal behaviours. Mathieu et al. (1990) illustrates that organisational commitment correlates positively with attendance and

negatively with lateness and turnover. Commitment demonstrated much larger correlations with two turnover-related intentions: a) intention to search for job alternatives and b) intention to leave one's job.

As suggested by Steers & Rhodes (1981), organisational commitment is but one of a number of factors involved in the process of employee attendance and absenteeism. Employee absenteeism is a costly personnel problem attracting the attention of theoreticians and practitioners. Hanisch & Hulin (1991) theorized that absenteeism and other withdrawal behaviours (eg. lateness and turnover) reflect invisible attitudes such as job dissatisfaction, low level of organisational commitment or an intention to quit. The employee's level of commitment helps when determining their intentions to leave an organisation. Griffin and Bateman (1986) states that turnover is the most frequently studied and reliably demonstrated consequence of low organisational commitment. Cooper & Robertson (1986) states that eventual leavers had lower commitment than stayers even on the first day of employment, the commitment of eventual leavers decreased over time and the closer the point of termination, the greater difference in commitment of leavers versus stayers.

Employees who exhibit high organisational commitment will be least likely to leave the organisation while employees with low commitment are most likely to leave the organisation. Instead of leaving, employees with high levels of commitment will rather put more effort into their work. The employees with lower levels of commitment find it futile to remain in a working environment that prevents the satisfaction of needs. These employees will leave the organisation

because it is not offering them with what they believe is important in a work environment (Huislid & Day, 1991). Porter et al. (1976) suggested that the strength of the relationship between organisational commitment and turnover increased over time.

According to this view, an employee who is absent from work is consciously or unconsciously expressing negative attachment to the organisation. Furthermore, for a lowly committed or dissatisfied employee, absence can have a positive role (Rosse & Miller, 1984). It may provide the employee an opportunity to avoid the negative emotions associated with work. Conversely, employees who are highly satisfied with their jobs or strongly committed to the organisation will avoid withdrawal behaviours and maintain continued attachment to work (Blau & Boal, 1986).

3.8. Advantages of Organisational Commitment

According to Weisner & Millet (2001), when employee commitment is high, organisations benefits in many ways, including the following:

> **High Quality:** Committed employees care about the quality of goods or services that the company provides. They are eager to offer creative ideas on how to improve products or systems. Organisations that stand for quality and service are more likely to attract talented workers who are looking to commit to a company they can be proud of.

➤ **High Performance:** Employees with high commitment to the organisation care about corporate goals and objectives. They are more willing to put out the extra effort necessary to increase performance and production.

➤ **Low turnover and Absenteeism:** When employees are committed to the organisation and feel the organisation is committed to them, they are less likely to quit their jobs or be absent from their jobs. Turnover and absenteeism drop substantially. In fact, committed employees' value their existing work relationships so highly that they may even pass over more lucrative job opportunities.

➤ **Good reputation:** Workers who are committed to the organisation speak well of it to their friends and in the community. This goes a long way to enhance the company's reputation with other employees, customers, and potential employees.

➤ **High Morale:** Committed employees are happy in their work. They love their jobs. When employee morale is high, there is less illness, fewer accidents, more fun, and heightened atmosphere of general goodwill.

➤ **Team Spirit:** When employees are committed to the highest objectives of the organisation, there is more co-operation and group interaction. Teams work together readily as they bond with one another. Team spirit comes naturally when people are committed to the organisation and to their co-workers.

➤ **Ability to attract employees:** Almost everyone wants to work in a company as described above. They want to bond with their co-workers, love their jobs and feel committed to the organisation. Organisations that understand this need will tend to attract the most talented people from a pool of well-skilled workers.

3.9. The Disadvantages of Organisational Commitment

The question of whether a strong organisational commitment is actually desirable in the current business environment is now being asked (Weisner & Millet, 2001). Tan & Akhtar (1994) suggested that there are alternative views that argue that high levels of organisational commitment are not desirable as they can stifle creativity, engender conformity and generate the sort of strain that results in burnout (Weisner & Millet, 2001).

Randall (1987) highlights the negative results of high levels of organisational commitment for the organisation. According to Randall (1987), highly committed employees may waste their talents in a job that they are not suited for; high levels of commitment in staff may lead to excessive trust in past procedure and a consequent entrenchment of traditional practices and a lack of organisational flexibility. In addition, too much devotion and overzealous behaviour may be bad for the organisation, irritating to others and in some extreme cases may lead to illegal or unethical activities being committed on behalf of the organisation. It is important that the possible positive results of low levels of organisational commitment, for both the organisation and the individual, be taken into consideration.

Randall (1987) states that employees with low levels of organisational commitment may participate in damaging role modeling or may take part in illegal activities against the organisation. Randall (1987) also reports that employees with low levels of organisational commitment may result in limited organisational control over employees. The individual may face possible dismissal, slower career advancement, more stringent criticism at work, loss of job security, heavier workloads, exclusion, harassment, isolation and or loss of income (Randall, 1987).

These criticisms suggest that increasingly high levels of organisational commitment should not be seen as an unending source of positive benefits for organisations and employees. However, organisational commitment should be viewed as one of several aspects of the employee-employer relationship that the organisation should endeavor to better, in conjunction with other factors (Weisner & Millet, 2001).

3.10. Studies in South Africa

Taljaard (1994) researched an organisation where employees were unsatisfied with their remuneration as well as promotional prospects, but still disclosed a positive attitude towards their work and the organisation. This situation gave rise to the purpose of the study that was to determine whether there is a difference in organisational and work commitment disclosed by employees who are in phases of the life cycle. The results of the study indicated that employees 36 years of age and older are more committed to their work than the younger employee, whereas employees of 31 years and older are more committed to an organisation than a younger

employee. This led him to conclude that there is a positive correlation between organisational commitment and age, that is, an older employee is more committed to an organisation than the younger employee.

Trautmann (1992), conducted a pilot study of mining supervisors to determine the organisational dimensions which affected their organisational commitment. The study involved a group of randomly selected mining supervisors whose perceptions of their work experiences and suggestions for improvements were gathered through unstructured interviews. Their perceptions were analysed to identify organisational dimensions, which affected organisational committed either positively or negatively. Seven organisational dimensions were identified and ranked in order of effect, from most negative to most positive. These dimensions include conditions of employment, recognition, personal development and advancement, management attitude and behaviour, line supervisors' management styles, the job itself and own management style and communication. Suggestions to increase commitment centered on two themes, namely, a need for recognition and a need for a change in management style.

3.11. Conclusion

Organisational commitment has become accepted as a multi-dimensional phenomenon and has become a major concern to both theorists and practitioners. Organisational commitment involves the employees' loyalty to the organisation and is determined by a number of personal, organisational and non-organisational variables. Organisational commitment has been conceived as having three components, affective, continuance and normative. The organisational

commitment has mixed results, but in general, is thought to have a stronger relationship with organisational outcomes such as performance, turnover and withdrawal behaviours.

As organisational commitment develops over time, its effects could be either costly or beneficial and it is important that commitment be assessed regularly. Organisations may benefit from highly committed employees through an acceptance of organisational demands for higher production, high levels of task competition and performance, the achievement of organisational goals and a secure and stable workforce.

Some of the chief benefits associated with organisational commitment are its ability to reduce absenteeism and turnover, and increase work effort. Although accurately calculating the costs or benefits of reducing levels of absenteeism and employee turnover is very complicated, they are substantial. It has been suggested that increasingly high levels of organisational commitment not be seen as an unending source of positive benefits for the organisations and employees but as a way to improve the employer-employee relationship (Randall, 1987).

Chapter 4

Research Methodology

4.1. Introduction

This chapter highlights the research methodology used in this study. This relates to sampling techniques, the data collection method used and the data analysis techniques.

4.2. Objectives of the study

- To determine whether there is a relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

- To conduct literature review on job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

- To assess the levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

- To examine the influence of the biographical variables on job satisfaction and organisational commitment respectively.

- To make recommendations.

4.3. Sampling Design

Sampling is the process of selecting part of the elements in a population and using the information obtained from here to draw conclusions about the entire population (Cooper & Emory, 1995). Therefore, sampling design includes the target population and the sampling methods to be used in the study.

4.3.1. Population and Sample

A population refers to "the entire group of people, events or things of interest that the researcher wishes to investigate" (Cooper & Emory, 1995:200). Sekaran (2000) defines population as the entire group of people, or things of interest that the researcher wishes to investigate. For the purpose of this study, all employees based at the South African Police Services, Stanger will form the population. The population numbered 140.

A sample can be defined as "the subset of the whole population which is actually investigated by a researcher and whose characteristics will be generalized to the entire population (Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995:84). According to Locke, Silverman & Spirduso (1998:47), a sample refers to "a small number of the set (whether people, objects, events or situation)". Locke et al. (1998) maintain further that after the sample is selected, its characteristics are used in order to estimate the characteristics of the true (and much larger) population. In this study, the sample will comprise of a smaller number of employees from the South African Police Services, Stanger.

4.3.2. Sampling Techniques

The basic idea of sampling is that by selecting part of the elements in a population, conclusions may be obtained about the entire population (Cooper & Emory, 1995). Cooper and Emory (1995) maintain further that an element is referred to the subject on which the measurement is being taken and is also the unit of study.

In this study the simple random sampling technique was used to select the sample. Simple random sampling is a sampling procedure which provides equal opportunity of selection for each element in the population, and the sample is a fair representation of the larger population (Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995). A sample of 103 subjects was selected which according to Sekaran (1992), is representative of a population of 140. Questionnaires were sent out to 103 subjects selected of which 73 were returned which represents 70% of the sample and over 50% of the population.

4.3.3. Sample Characteristics

The following details were obtained from the biographical data: age, gender, marital status, home language, ethnic group, education level and length of service.

A tabular representation of the biographical data is reflected in Tables 4.1. to 4.7. below. A brief discussion follows:

Table 4.1: Frequency and Percentage of the Age Groups

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
21-30	22	30.1%
31-40	30	41.1%
41-50	20	27.4%
51-60	1	1.4%
Total	73	100.0%

Figure 4.1: Sample composition by Age
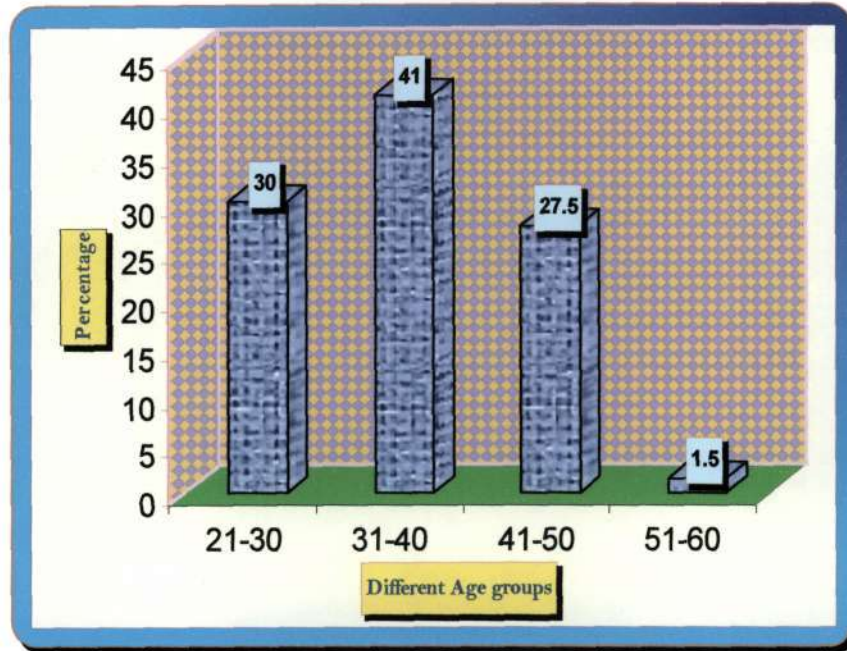
Table 4.1 and figure 4.1. indicates that the highest percentage of respondents (41.1%) fell in the age group of 31-40, followed by 21-30 years (30.1%), followed by the 41-50 years (27.4%) and then by the 51-60 years (1.4%) respectively. The majority of the respondents fell in the age group of 21-40 (71.2%)

Table 4.2: Frequency and Percentages of the Gender Group

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Male	55	75.3%
Female	18	24.7%
Total	73	100.0%

Figure 4.2: Sample composition by Gender
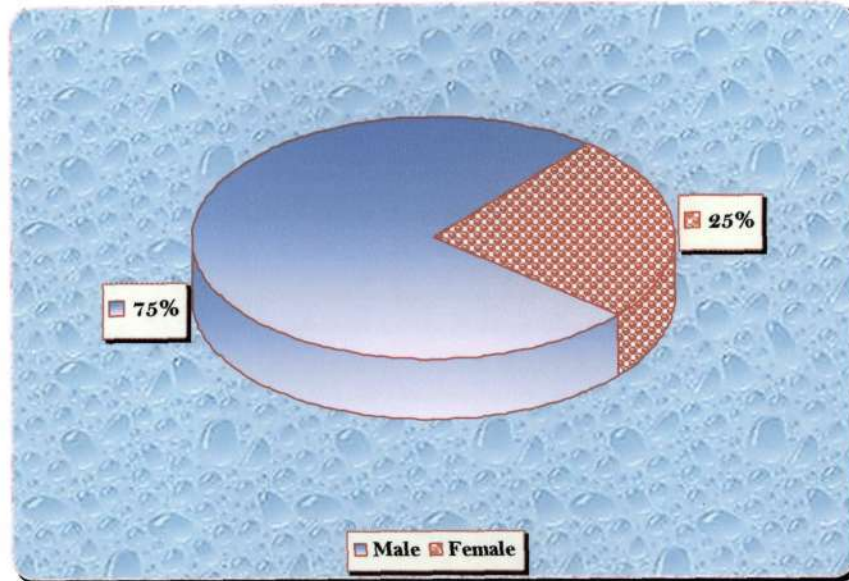
Table 4.2. and figure 4.2. indicates the 75.3% of the sample comprised of males, whilst 24.7% were females. There is an imbalance in gender because the sample population composed predominantly of males.

Table 4.3. Frequency and Percentages of the Marital Status Groups

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Married	46	63.0%
Single	26	35.6%
Divorced	1	1.4%
Total	73	100.0%

Figure 4.3: Sample composition by Marital status
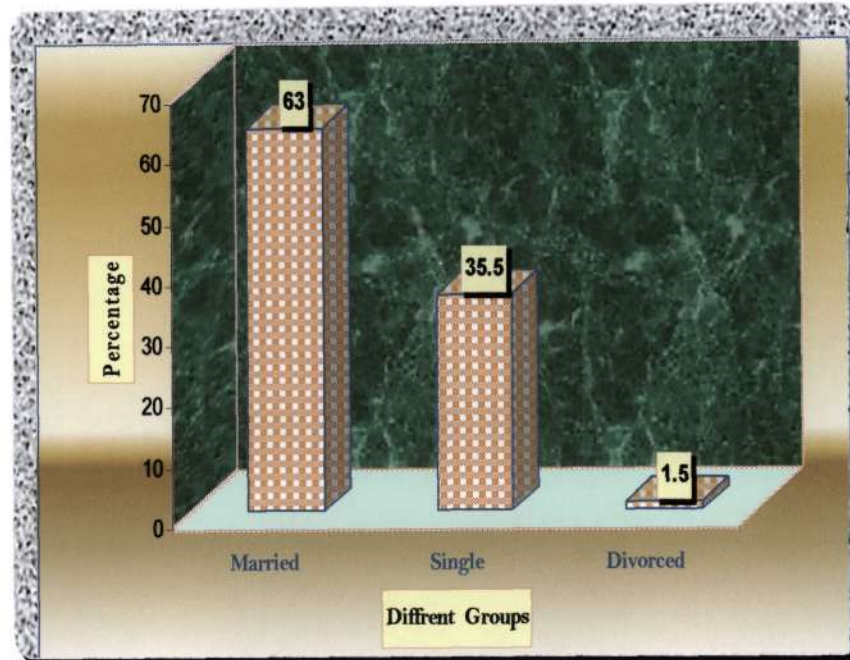
Table 4.2. and figure 4.2. indicates the 75.3% of the sample comprised of males, whilst 24.7% were females. There is an imbalance in gender because the sample population composed predominantly of males.

Table 4.4: Frequency and Percentages of the Home language Group

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
English	36	49.3%
Afrikaans	2	2.7%
Zulu	34	46.6%
Xhosa	1	1.4%
Total	73	100.0%

Figure 4.4: Sample composition by Home language
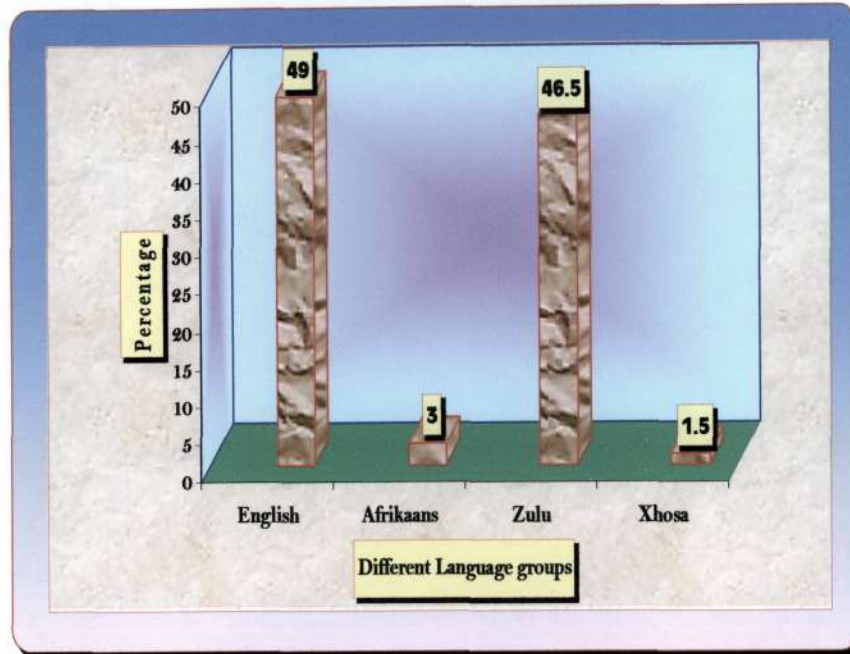
Table 4.4. and figure 4.4. indicates that majority of the respondents were English speaking (49.3%), followed by the Zulu speaking (46.6%), followed by the Afrikaans speaking (2.7%), and then by the Xhosa speaking.

Table 4.5. Frequency and Percentages of the Ethnic Groups

Variable	Frequency	Percentages
White	6	8.2%
African	35	47.9%
Indian	31	42.5%
Coloured	1	1.4%
Total	73	100.0%

Figure 4. 5: Sample Composition by Ethnic groups
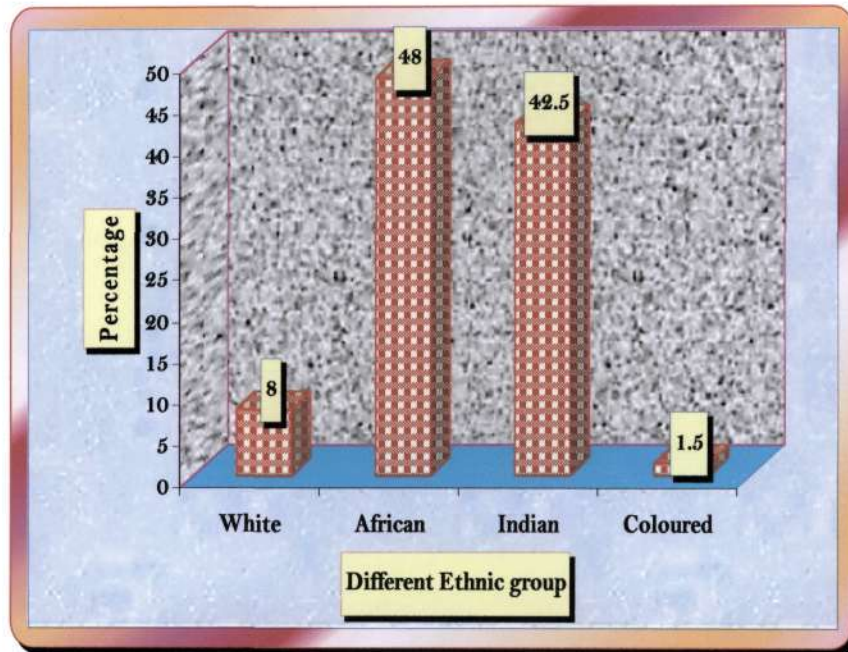
Table 4.5 and figure 4.5. indicates the only 8.2% were whites. The majority of the respondents included African (47.9%) and Indians (42.5).

Table 4.6: Frequency and Percentages of Education Level Groups

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Below Matric	7	9.6%
Matric	45	61.6%
Diploma	19	26.0%
Degree	1	1.4%
Total	72	98.6%
Missing	1	1.4%
Total	73	100.0%

Figure4.6: Sample Composition by Educational levels
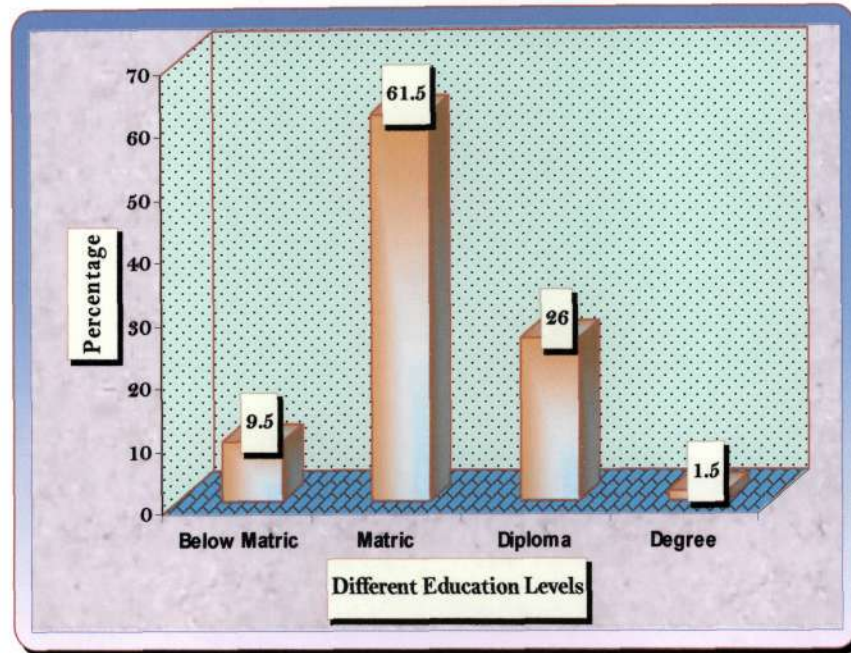
Table 4.6. and figure 4.6. indicates that majority of the respondents are matriculated (61.6%), whilst 26.0% have diplomas and 9.5% are below matric one subject with a degree.

Table 4.7: Frequency and Percentages of Length of Service

Variable	Frequency	Percentages
1-5 years	23	31.5%
6-10 years	4	5.5%
11-15 years	18	24.7%
16-20 years	13	17.8%
21-25 years	14	19.2%
26 and above	1	1.4%
Total	73	100.0%

Figure 4.7: Sample Composition by Length of service
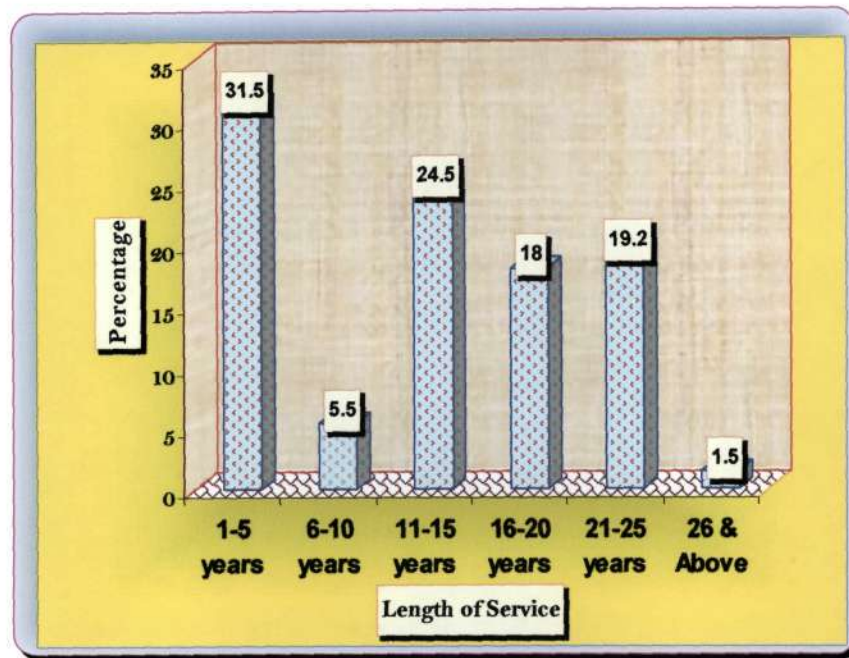
Table 4.7 and figure 4.7.indicates that 24.7% of the respondents have 11-15 years of service whilst majority of the respondents have between 1-5 years of service (31.5%).

4.4 Data Collection Methods

Several methods can be used to collect data (Kumar, 1996). Data collection methods include interviews, questionnaires personally administered, sent through the mail or electronically administered, observation of individuals and events with or without videotaping or audio recording, and a variety of other motivational techniques such as projective tests (Sekaran, 2000). The research instrument used for data collection comprised of questionnaires and unstructured interviews.

4.4.1. Measuring Instrument

The measuring instruments consist of the following, biographical information, Weiss, Dawis, Lofquist & England (1977) job satisfaction questionnaire, adaptation of Allen & Meyer's (1990) affective commitment scale, normative commitment scale and continuance commitment scale and unstructured interview.

According to Sekaran (1992:200), "a questionnaire is a preformulated written set of questions to which respondants record their answers, usually within rather closely defined alternatives." A questionnaire is referred to as "an instrument that is used for observing data beyond the physical reach of the observer" (Leedy, 1997:191). Leedy (1997) maintains further that questionnaires are used as tools to probe deep within the minds or the attitudes, feelings or reactions of men and women. A copy of the questionnaire is presented as Appendix A.

Unstructured interviews are where the interviewer does not enter the interview setting with a planned sequence of questions. Unstructured interviews are undertaken to surface some preliminary issues so that the researcher can formulate a good idea of what variables need further investigation (Sekaran, 1992).

In this study, questionnaires and unstructured interviews were used.

4.4.1.1. Questionnaires

The questionnaire used in this study consisted of three sections, namely:

a) Section 1 – Biographical details

The biographical details requested includes personal information such as age, gender, marital status, home language, race, level of education, length of service in the organisation.

b) Section 2 – Job satisfaction

Weiss, Dawis, Lofquist and England (1977) designed a 21 item job satisfaction scale. The questionnaire measures the dimensions pay, working conditions, supervision, relation with co-workers, opportunities for advancement. equitable rewards and recognition.

The dimensions and items are as follows:

1) Item 6 tapped pay,

2) Items 4, 9, 16, 17, 18 tapped working conditions,

3) Items 3, 5, 15, 21 tapped supervision,

4) Items 10, 14 tapped relation with co-workers,

5) Items 1, 7, 8 tapped opportunities for advancement,

6) Items 12, 13 tapped equitable rewards

7) Items 2, 11, 19, 20 tapped recognition

The purpose of the questionnaire was to give respondents the opportunity to respond to statements regarding job satisfaction. Responses are made on a five-point Likert scale ranging from very dissatisfied (1), dissatisfied (2), neutral (3), satisfied (4) and very satisfied (5). The respondents indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree to a variety of statements by

ticking the specific block. A high score indicates the extent to which a person is satisfied and low score indicates the extent to which a person is dissatisfied.

The psychometric properties i.e. validity and reliability, of the job satisfaction scale have proved to be acceptable (Spector, 2000).

c) Section 3 – Organisational commitment

The questionnaire used is an adaptation of Allen & Meyer's (1990) affective commitment scale (ACS), continuance commitment scale (CCS) and normative commitment scale (NCS). The questionnaire comprise of a total of twenty four items, where items 1-8 tapped the affective commitment dimension, items 9-16 tapped the continuance commitment dimension and items 17-24 tapped the normative commitment dimension. Responses are made on a five-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), neutral (3), agree (4) and strongly agree (5). The respondents indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree to a variety of statements by ticking the specific block. A high score indicates the extent to which a person is committed to the organisation and a low score indicates the extent to which a person is not committed to the organisation.

4.4.1.2. Unstructured Interviews

In this study, unstructured interview took place after the questionnaire responses were processed. Unstructured interviews were conducted to obtain more in-depth information with regard to the subject's satisfaction and commitment levels. The interview was carried out on a few subjects.

4.4.2. Procedure

After obtaining permission from the South African Police Services to conduct the study, questionnaires were distributed by an employee on behalf of the researcher to the individuals in the SAPS. Each questionnaire was accompanied by a covering letter describing the nature and objective of the study and assuring the respondents utmost confidentiality. No problems were encountered by the respondents with the questionnaire. However, some respondents were reluctant to complete the questionnaire. It took approximately about a week to get back the questionnaires. A total of 103 questionnaires were administered, of which 73 questionnaires were returned with a response rate of 71%. Statistical analysis were performed on the data from the completed questionnaires.

4.4.3. Analysis of Data

The data from the completed questionnaires was coded as per variables and captured in SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) 11.5 version which is international standard statistical software. Data was analysed both descriptive and inferential statistics with SPSS 11.5

4.4.3.1. Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics refer to the collection of methods for classifying and summarizing numerical data. The objective of descriptive statistics "is to provide summary measures of the data contained in all the elements of a sample" (Kinnear & Taylor, 1991:546). Descriptive analysis incorporates frequencies, measures of central tendency, and measures of dispersion.

i) Frequency

According to Sekaran (2000:136), frequencies refer to the number of times various sub categories of a certain phenomenon occur, from which the percentage and cumulative frequency of their occurrence can be easily calculated. Frequencies are used in the current study to obtain a profile of the sample.

ii) The Mean

The mean is referred to as the arithmetic average (Cooper & Emory, 1995). It is defined by Cooper & Emory (1995:395) as "the sum of the observed values in the distribution divided by the number of observations. It is the local measure most frequently used for interval-ratio data but can be misleading when the distribution contains extreme values, large or small (Cooper & Emory, 1995).

iii) The Standard Deviation

According to Silver (1992), the standard deviation (s) is based on subtracting each individual value from the arithmetic mean. The standard deviation is the positive square root of the variance (Cooper & Emory, 1995). Cooper & Emory (1995) adds that standard deviation is the most frequently used measure of spread because it improves interpretability by removing the variance's square and expressing deviations in their original units. Like the mean, the standard deviation is affected by extreme scores (Cooper & Emory, 1995).

4.4.3.2. Inferential Statistics

McCall (1994) refers to inferential statistics as the methods used to make inferences about a larger group of individuals on the basis of data collected from a smaller group. The objective of the inferential statistics is to enable the researcher to determine "whether or not a difference between two treatment conditions occurred by 'chance' or is a 'true difference' (Dunham 1981:780). The different inferential statistical techniques that will be used to test the various hypotheses include the t-test, analysis of variance, multiple regression, correlation, Cronbach's co-efficient alpha and factor analysis.

i) T-Test

A t-test is used to investigate if there is any significant difference in the means for two groups in the variables of interest and the variations on the t-test are used for independent and related samples (Cooper & Emory, 1995).

ii) Analysis of variance (ANOVA)

"The statistical methods for testing the null hypothesis that the means of several populations are equal is known as the analysis of variance" (Cooper & Emory, 1995:457). Cooper & Emory (1995) suggest that the one-way analysis of variance uses a single factor, fixed-effects model to compare the effects of one factor on a continuous dependent variable.

iii) Correlation

Correlation analysis examines the strength of the identified association between variables (Wegner,1995). Pearson's Correlation Matrix indicates the direction, strength and significance of the bivariate relationship among the variables in the study (Cooper & Emory, 1995).

iv) Multiple Regression

Multiple Regression is an analysis in which more than one predictor is jointly regressed against the criterion variable. Multiple regression analysis helps one to understand how much of the variance in the dependent variable is explained by a set of predictors (Sekaran, 1992).

4.5. Statistical Analysis of the Questionnaire

Statistical analysis of the questionnaire was undertaken to establish the reliability of the questionnaire.

4.5.1. Reliability: Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha

The reliability of the measure, according to Sekaran (2000) indicates the extent to which the measure is without bias (error free) and hence, offers consistent measurement across time and across various items in the instrument. It indicates the stability and consistency with which the instrument measures the concept and helps to assess the 'goodness' of a measure. "Cronbach's alpha is a reliability coefficient that indicates how well the items in a set are positively correlated to one another. Cronbach's alpha is computed in terms of the average inter-correlations among items measuring the concept. The closer Cronbach's alpha is to 1, the higher the internal

consistency reliability" (Sekaran, 2000:308). The reliability coefficient is scale-free in that its value cannot be less than zero or greater than 1.

4.6 <u>Conclusion</u>

This chapter explored the research methodology and statistical methods used to analyse the data obtained from the questionnaire. A statistical analysis of the data will assist one to draw conclusions about the study.

Chapter 5

Presentation of Results

5.1. Introduction

In this chapter, the results obtained after applying the statistical techniques identified in Chapter 4 will be presented. These include the measures of central tendency and dispersion, correlation analysis and the relationship between the respective biographical variables and the respective job satisfaction and organizational commitment dimensions.

5.2. Objectives

➢ To determine whether there is a relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

➢ To conduct literature review on job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

➢ To assess the levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

➢ To examine the influence of the biographical variables on job satisfaction and organisational commitment respectively.

➢ To make recommendations.

5.3. Measures of Central Tendency and Dispersion

The measures of central tendency and dispersion for the dimensions of job satisfaction and organizational commitment are shown in Tables 5.1. and 5.2. below:

Table 5.1: **Means, Std. Deviation, Minimum and Maximum scores for the dimensions of Organizational Commitment**

Organizational Commitment Dimension	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Affective Commitment	73	14	32	24.51	3.563
Normative Commitment	73	11	40	26.25	6.986
Continuance Commitment	73	13	33	25.01	4.175

The mean score (M=24.51) for affective commitment indicates that subjects shows a moderate level of affective commitment. The standard deviation (sd=3.563) shows there is some variation in the levels of affective commitment. This is confirmed by examining the minimum and maximum scores. The minimum score of 14 shows low levels of affective commitment while the maximum scores of 32 indicates a strong level of affective commitment.

The mean score (M=26.25) for normative commitment indicates that subjects experience a moderate level of normative level. The standard deviation (sd= 6.986) shows a high variation in the levels of normative commitment. This is confirmed by examining the minimum and maximum scores. The minimum score of 11 shows low levels of normative commitment while the maximum score of 40 indicates a high level of normative commitment.

The mean score of (M=25.01) for continuance commitment indicates that subjects shows a moderate level of continuance commitment. The standard deviation (sd= 4.175) shows there is

variation in the levels of continuance commitment. This is confirmed by examining the minimum and maximum scores. The minimum scores of 13 shows low levels of continuance commitment while the maximum score of 33 shows strong levels of continuance commitment.

If the mean score are ranked ordered from the highest to the lowest it can be seen that normative commitment had the high score (26.25) followed by continuance commitment (25.01) and affective commitment (24.51). However it must be remembered that the mean scores indicates that the subjects display moderate levels of commitment. A similar trend is noted when one examines the std. deviation scores. Subjects displayed the highest variation for normative commitment (6.986) followed by continuance commitment (4.175) and then affective commitment (3.563).

Table 5.2. : Means, Std. Deviation, Minimum and Maximum scores for the dimensions of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction Dimension	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pay	73	1	5	2.18	1.447
Working conditions	73	6	25	17.29	4.990
Supervision	73	4	20	11.67	4.021
Relation with co-workers	73	4	10	7.22	1.887
Opportunities for advancement	73	3	15	9.00	2.892
Equitable Rewards	73	2	10	7.11	2.138
Recognition	73	6	20	13.53	4.045

The results presented in Table 5.2. indicates that subjects are dissatisfied with the pay they receive (M=2.18). The standard deviations for pay (sd= 1.447) shows variation in the subjects perceptions of pay. The minimum score of 1 and maximum score of 5 shows there are subjects who are very dissatisfied with their pay while there are others who are very satisfied.

The mean for working conditions (M= 17.29) indicate that employees are slightly satisfied. The standard deviation (sd = 4.990) shows that there is variation in their level of satisfaction regarding working conditions. The minimum score of 6 shows dissatisfaction while a maximum score of 25 shows satisfaction with working conditions.

The mean for supervision (M=11.67) indicates that subjects are dissatisfied with the supervision they receive. The standard deviation (sd=4.021) shows variation in the level of satisfaction regarding supervision. The minimum score of 4 and a maximum score of 20 shows that there are subjects who are very dissatisfied with their supervision while there are others who are very satisfied.

The mean (M=7.22) indicate that employees are satisfied with their relations with co-workers. The standard deviation (sd = 1.887) for relation with co-workers shows a variation. The minimum score of 4 shows that some employees are dissatisfied while a maximum score of 10 shows that other employees are very satisfied with their relation with co-workers.

The mean for opportunities for advancement (M = 9.00) indicates that employees are neither satisfied nor dissatisfied. The standard deviation (sd = 2.892) shows there is variation in the level of satisfaction of employees regarding opportunities for advancement in the police force. The minimum score of 3 shows dissatisfaction while the maximum score of 15 shows satisfaction with opportunities for advancement.

The mean score for equitable rewards (M = 7.11) shows that employees have low levels of satisfaction. The std. deviation (sd= 2.138) for equitable rewards shows a variation with a minimum score of 2 showing employees being very dissatisfied and a maximum score of 10 showing employees being very satisfied with equitable rewards.

The mean for recognition (M= 13.53) indicates that employees show low levels of satisfaction with the recognition they receive. The standard deviation (sd = 4.045) for recognition shows there is variation in the level of satisfaction regarding recognition. The minimum score of 6 and maximum score of 20 shows that there are subjects who are very dissatisfied with the recognition while there are others who are very satisfied. It is evident that employees are dissatisfied with their jobs in terms of pay and supervision.

5.4. Intercorrelations among the respective organisational commitment dimensions and job satisfaction dimensions

Tables 5.3 and 5.4 below show the intercorrelation among the dimensions of organizational commitment and job satisfaction respectively.

Table 5.3: <u>Intercorrelations among the dimensions of Organisational Commitment</u>

Organizational Commitment Dimensions	Affective Commitment	Normative Commitment	Continuance Commitment
Affective Commitment	1		
p			
Normative Commitment	-.052	1	
p	.662		
Continuance Commitment	.082	.208	1
p	.492	.078	

*p≤ 0.05

➢ There is no correlation between affective commitment and normative commitment (r= - .052; p= .662) and affective commitment and continuance commitment (r = .082, p = .492).

➢ There is no correlation between normative commitment and continuance commitment (r = .208; p = .078).

Table 5.4: Intercorrelations among the dimensions of job satisfaction

Job satisfaction Dimensions	Pay	Working conditions	Supervision	Relation with co-workers	Opportunities for advancement	Equitable rewards	Recognition
Pay	1						
p							
Working conditions	.420**	1					
p	.000						
Supervision	.526**	.599**	1				
p	.000	.000					
Relation with co-workers	.281*	.509**	.474**	1			
p	.016	.000	.000				
Opportunities for advancement	.495**	.506**	.663**	.333**	1		
p	.000	.000	.000	.004			
Equitable rewards	.101	.475**	.434**	.490**	.398**	1	
p	.393	.000	.000	.000	.000		
Recognition	.354***	.614**	.732**	.525**	.631**	.611**	1
p	.002	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	

* $p \leq 0.05$
** $p \leq 0.01$

➤ There is a significant correlation at the 0.01 level between pay and working conditions (r =.420, p = .000), supervision (r = .526, p = .000), opportunities for advancement (r = .495, p = .000) and recognition (r = .354, p = .002). The correlation between pay and relation with co – workers was significant at the .05 level (r = .281, p = .016).

➤ There is no significant correlation between pay and equitable rewards (r = .101, p = .393).

➤ There is a significant correlation between working conditions and supervision (r = .599, p = .000), relation with co-workers (r = .509, p = .000), opportunities for advancement (r =.506, p = .000), equitable rewards (r = .475, p = .000) and recognition (r = .614, p = .000) at the 0.01 level.

➤ There is a significant correlation at the 0.01 level between supervision and relation with co-workers (r = .474, p = .000), opportunities for advancement (r = .663, p = .000), equitable rewards (r = .434, p = .000) and recognition (r = .732, p = .000).

➤ There exists a significant correlation at the 0.01 level between relation with co-workers and opportunities for advancement (r = .333, p = .004), equitable rewards (r = .490, p = .000) and recognition (r = .525, p = .000).

> There is a significant correlation at the 0.01 level between opportunities for advancement and equitable rewards (r = .398, p = .000) and recognition (r = .631, p = .000).

> There exists a significant correlation at the 0.01 level between equitable rewards and recognition (r = .611, p = .000).

5.5. Hypotheses

5.5.1. Hypothesis 1

There is a significant correlation between the dimensions of job satisfaction (pay, working conditions, supervision, relation with co-workers, opportunities for advancement, equitable rewards, recognition) and the dimensions of organisational commitment (Affective, Normative and Continuance commitment)

The correlations are shown in Table 5.5 below:

Table 5.5. **Pearson's correlation matrix between Job satisfaction dimensions and organisational commitment**

		Affective commitment	Normative commitment	Continuance commitment
Pay	Pearson Correlation	-.015	.379**	.161
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.899	.001	.175
	N	73	73	73
Working conditions	Pearson Correlation	.033	.752**	.119
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.781	.000	.315
	N	73	73	73
Supervision	Pearson Correlation	-.054	.740**	.225
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.649	.000	.055
	N	73	73	73
Relation with co-workers	Pearson Correlation	-.141	.732**	-.018
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.235	.000	.880
	N	73	73	73
Opportunities for advancement	Pearson Correlation	.093	.617**	.205
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.434	.000	.082
	N	73	73	73
Equitable rewards	Pearson Correlation	.069	.723**	.061
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.561	.000	.611
	N	73	73	73
Recognition	Pearson Correlation	.083	.760**	.148
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.485	.000	.210
	N	73	73	73

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

➤ There is no significant correlation between the dimensions of job satisfaction (pay, working conditions, supervision, relation with co-workers, opportunities for advancement, equitable rewards and recognition) and affective and continuance commitment respectively.

➤ All the dimensions of job satisfaction (pay, working conditions, supervision, relation with co-workers, opportunities for advancement, equitable rewards and recognition) correlated significantly at the 0.01 level with normative commitment.

Accordingly, Hypothesis 1 is only supported in the case of the job satisfaction dimensions and normative commitment.

5.5.2. Hypothesis 2

There is a significant difference in the perceptions of the respective dimensions of organisational commitment (affective, normative and continuance) among the respective biographical variables (age, marital status, home language, ethnic group, highest education, length of service).

The results are reflected in Tables 5.6 to 5.9.

a) Gender and Organisational commitment

The results of the t-test are shown in Table 5.6 below:

Table 5.6: Organizational Commitment by Gender

Organizational Commitment dimension	t	p
Affective	1.793	.083
Normative	.893	.378
Continuance	-.733	.470

*p≤ 0.05

> There is no significant difference in the perceptions of the organisational commitment dimensions between males and females.

b) Biographical variables (age, marital status, home language, ethnic group, highest education and length of service) and Affective Commitment

The results of the F-test are shown in Table 5.7 below:

Table 5.7: Affective Commitment by Biographical variables

Variables	F	p
Age	.308	.819
Marital status	.320	.727
Home language	.137	.938
Ethnic group	.883	.454
Highest education	2.510	.066
Length of service	2.189	.066

*$p \leq 0.05$

Table 5.7. indicates no significant difference in the perceptions of affective commitment among the respective biographical variables (age, marital status, home language, ethnic group, highest education, length of service).

c) Biographical variables (age, marital status, home language, ethnic group, highest education and length of service) and Normative Commitment

The results of the F-test are shown in Table 5.8 below:

Table 5.8: Normative Commitment by Biographical variables

Variables	F	p
Age	3.040	.035*
Marital status	1.400	.253
Home language	6.711	.000*
Ethnic group	8.798	.000*
Highest education	.857	.468
Length of service	.711	.618

*p≤0.05

Table 5.8. indicates a significant difference in the perception of normative commitment among the age groups (F = 3.040, p ≤ 0.05), home language (F = 6.711, p ≤ 0.05) and ethnic groups (F = 8.798, p ≤ 0.05).

d) Biographical variables (age, marital status, home language, ethnic group, highest education and length of service) and Continuance Commitment

The results of the F-test are shown in Table 5.9 below:

Table 5.9: Continuance Commitment by Biographical variables

Variables	F	p
Age	.444	.723
Marital status	.530	.591
Home language	2.312	.084
Ethnic group	2.321	.083
Highest education	2.567	.062
Length of service	.553	.735

*p≤0.05

Table 5.9 indicates no significant difference in the perception of continuance commitment among the biographical variables (age, marital status, home language, ethnic group, highest education and length of service).

Accordingly, Hypothesis 2 is supported only in the case of the normative commitment dimension and age, home language and ethnic group.

5.5.3 Hypotheses 3

There is a significant difference in the perceptions of the respective dimensions of job satisfaction (pay, working conditions, supervision, relation with co-workers, opportunities for advancement, equitable rewards, recognition) among the respective biographical variables (age, marital status, home language, ethnic group, highest education, length of service).

The results are reflected in tables 5.10 to 5.17.

a) Gender and Job satisfaction

The results of the t-test are shown in Table 5.10 below:

Table 5.10: Job Satisfaction by Gender

Job satisfaction dimension	t	p
Pay	.826	.415
Working conditions	1.253	.219
Supervision	.006	.996
Relation with co workers	1.727	.095
Opportunities for advancement	.286	.777
Equitable rewards	1.336	.191
Recognition	1.401	.172

*p≤0.05

Table 5.11 indicates no significant difference in the perceptions of the job satisfaction dimensions between males and females.

b) Biographical variables (age, marital status, home language, ethnic group, highest education and length of service) and Pay

The results of the F-test are shown in Table 5.11 below:

Table 5.11: Pay by Biographical variables

Variables	F	p
Age	2.185	.098
Marital status	3.125	.050*
Home language	5.498	.002*
Ethnic group	4.428	.007*
Highest education	.437	.727
Length of service	1.106	.366

*p≤ 0.05

Table 5.11 indicates a significant difference in pay among the marital status groups (F = 3.125, p = 0.05), home language groups (F= 5.498, p≤ 0.05) and ethnic groups (F= 4.428, p≤ 0.05)

c) **Biographical variables (age, marital status, home language, ethnic group, highest education and length of service) and working conditions**

The results of the F-test are shown in Table 5.12 below:

Table 5.12: Working Conditions by Biographical variables

Variables	F	P
Age	1.410	.247
Marital status	2.366	.101
Home language	3.992	.011*
Ethnic group	3.539	.019*
Highest education	.262	.853
Length of service	.678	.642

*p≤0.05

Table 5.12 indicates a significant difference in working conditions among the home language (F= 3.992, p≤ 0.05) and ethnic groups (F = 3.539, p ≤ 0.05).

d) **Biographical variables (age, marital status, home language, ethnic group, highest education and length of service) and Supervision**

The results of the F-test are shown in Table 5.13 below:

Table 5.13: Supervision by Biographical variables

Variables	F	p
Age	2.110	.107
Marital status	3.794	.027*
Home language	9.634	.000*
Ethnic group	10.008	.000*
Highest education	1.275	.290
Length of service	1.911	.104

*$p \leq 0.05$

Table 5.13 indicates a significant difference in supervision among the marital status groups (F = 3.794, p ≤ 0.05), home language groups (F= 9.634, p≤ 0.05) and ethnic groups (F = 10.008, p≤ 0.05).

e) **Biographical variables (age, marital status, home language, ethnic group, highest education and length of service) and Relation with co-workers**

The results of the F-test are shown in Table 5.14 below:

Table 5.14: Relation with co-workers by Biographical variables

Variables	F	P
Age	.660	.580
Marital status	.213	.809
Home language	3.461	.021*
Ethnic group	2.906	.041*
Highest education	1.329	.272
Length of service	.243	.942

*$p \leq 0.05$

Table 5.14 indicates a significant difference between relation with co-workers among the home language groups (F = 3.461, p≤ 0.05) and ethnic groups (F=2.906, p ≤0.05).

f) **Biographical variables (age, marital status, home language, ethnic group, highest education and length of service) and Opportunities for advancement**

The results of the F-test are shown in Table 5.15 below:

Table 5.15: Opportunities for advancement by Biographical variables

Variables	F	p
Age	3.444	.021*
Marital status	2.742	.071
Home language	13.808	.000*
Ethnic group	13.719	.000*
Highest education	.292	.831
Length of service	1.437	.223

*p≤0.05

Table 5.15 indicates a significant difference in opportunities for advancement among the age groups (F=3.444, p≤0.05), home language groups (F=13.808, p≤ 0.05) and the ethnic groups (F=13.719, p≤0.05)

g) **Biographical variables (age, marital status, home language, ethnic group, highest education and length of service) and Equitable Rewards**

The results of the F-test are shown in Table 5.16 below:

Table 5.16: Equitable Rewards by Biographical variables

Variables	F	P
Age	1.431	.241
Marital status	.224	.800
Home language	.524	.667
Ethnic group	3.137	.031*
Highest education	.697	.557
Length of service	.579	.716

*p≤0.05

Table 5.16 indicates a significant difference in equitable rewards among the ethnic groups (F= 3.137, p≤0.05).

h)   Biographical variables (age, marital status, home language, ethnic group, highest education and length of service) and Recognition

The results of the F-test are shown in Table 5.17 below:

Table 5.17: Recognition by Biographical variables

Variables	F	p
Age	1.210	.313
Marital status	.797	.455
Home language	2.835	.044*
Ethnic group	4.216	.009*
Highest education	.413	.744
Length of service	.509	.786

*p≤0.05

Table 5.17 indicates a significant difference among the home language groups ($F=2.835$, $p \leq 0.05$) and ethnic groups ($F=4.216$, $p \leq 0.05$).

Accordingly, hypothesis 3 is supported in the following cases, pay and marital status, home language and ethnic groups, working conditions and the home language and ethnic groups, supervision and the marital status, home language and ethnic groups, relation with co-workers and the home language and ethnic groups, opportunities for advancement and the age, home language and ethnic groups, equitable rewards and the ethnic group and recognition and the home language and ethnic groups.

5.5.4 Hypotheses 4

The 7 dimensions of Job satisfaction will significantly explain the variance in affective, normative and continuance commitment respectively. The results of the multiple regression analysis are shown in Tables 5.18 to 5.20 below with affective, normative and continuous commitment as dependant variables respectively.

Table 5.18: <u>Results of the Multiple Regression Analysis with Affective Commitment</u>

<u>as the dependant variable</u>

Model Summary

Model	Multiple R	Multiple R Square	Adjusted R square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.968	**0.936**	0.930	6.563

ANOVA

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1.Regression	41914.048	7	5987.721	139.007	.000
Residual	2842.952	66	43.075		
Total	44757.000	73			

Co-efficients

Variable	Unstandardized Co-efficients		Standardized Co-efficients	T- value	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1. Pay	0.335	0.675	0.035	0.496	0.622
2. Working conditions	0.346	0.213	0.251	1.624	0.109
3. Supervision	0.352	0.329	0.175	1.069	0.289
4. Relation with Co workers	0.939	0.477	0.283	1.967	0.053
5. Opportunities for Advancement	0.845	0.377	**0.322**	2.241	**0.028**
6. Equitable rewards	0.705	0.482	0.211	1.463	0.148
7. Recognition	0.211	0.339	0.120	0.621	0.537

The R Square (0.936) indicates that 93.6% of the variance in Affective Commitment can be explained by the 7 predictors.

In order to determine which of the variables considered in this study impacts on affective commitment, it was necessary to compute the Beta values for each variable, as is depicted in the table below; the results of Beta values will be discussed.

The Beta values indicate that only opportunities for advancement with a Beta value of 0.322 was significant in explaining the variance in Affective Commitment.

Table 5.19: Results of Multiple Regression analysis with Normative Commitment as the dependant variable

Model Summary

Model	Multiple R	Multiple R Square	Adjusted R square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.996	**0.992**	0.991	2.589

ANOVA

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1.Regression	53359.538	7	7622.791	1137.056	.000
Residual	442.462	66	6.704		
Total	53802.000	73			

Co-Efficients

Variable	Unstandardized Co-efficients		Standardized Co-efficients	T- value	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1. Pay	0.126	0.266	0.012	0.474	0.637
2. Working conditions	0.329	0.084	**0.218**	3.921	**0.000**
3. Supervision	0.416	0.130	**0.189**	3.209	**0.002**
4. Relation with Co workers	0.980	0.188	**0.269**	5.205	**0.000**
5. Opportunities for Advancement	0.198	0.149	0.069	1.331	0.188
6. Equitable rewards	0.882	0.190	**0.241**	4.638	**0.000**
7. Recognition	0.071	0.134	0.037	0.528	0.599

The R Square (0.992) indicates that 99.2% of the variance in Normative Commitment can be explained by the 7 predictors.

In order to determine which of the variables considered in this study impacts on Normative commitment , it was necessary to compute Beta values for each variable, as is depicted in the table below, the results of Beta values will be discussed.

The Beta values indicate that Relations with co-workers was the most important and significant variable in explaining the variance in Normative Commitment. This was followed by Equitable Rewards, Working conditions and supervision all of which were also significant.

Table 5.20: <u>Results of Multiple Regression analysis with Continuance Commitment as the dependant variable</u>

Model Summary

Model	Multiple R	Multiple R Square	Adjusted R square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.968	**0.936**	0.930	6.724

ANOVA

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1.Regression	43945.824	7	6277.975	138.848	.000
Residual	2984.176	66	45.215		
Total	46930.000	73			

Co-Efficients

Variable		Unstandardized Co-efficients		Standardized Co-efficients	T- value	Sig.
		B	Std. error	Beta		
1	Pay	0.219	0.692	0.023	0.316	0.753
2	Working conditions	0.288	0.218	0.205	1.322	0.191
3	Supervision	0.133	0.337	0.065	0.395	0.694
4	Relation with Co workers	0.983	0.489	**0.289**	2.011	**0.048**
5	Opportunities for Advancement	0.768	0.386	0.286	1.988	0.051
6	Equitable rewards	0.558	0.494	0.163	1.130	0.263
7	Recognition	0.007	0.347	0.004	0.019	0.985

The R Square (0.936) indicates that 93.6% of the variance in Continuance Commitment can be explained by the 7 predictors.

In order to determine which of the variables considered in this study impacts on Continuance commitment, it was necessary to compute the Beta values for each variable, as is depicted in below table; the results of Beta values will be discussed.

The Beta values indicate that only relation with co-workers with a Beta value of 0.289 was significant in explaining the variance in Continuance Commitment.

5.6. Psychometric properties of the Questionnaire

The psychometric properties of the questionnaire will be determined by measuring the reliability of the questionnaire.

5.6.1. Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha

Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha is used to measure reliability in this study. The reliability analysis was conducted on the research instrument separately on the Job satisfaction and Organisational commitment respectively to measure the consistency of responses.

The Cronbach's Alpha values are shown in Table 5.26 below:

Table 5.21: Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha

Job Satisfaction	0.8960
Organisational Commitment	0.7414

Both Alpha values are above 0.7, indicates the research instrument has a high degree of reliability. It has consistent and stable measure of the key variables of the study.

5.7. Conclusion

This chapter objectively presented the results of the study using descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive and inferential statistics provided a description and interpretation of results using a number of methods. A clear presentation of results enables one to identify significant relationships and differences between the variables in the study and also points out the areas where improvement is required.

Chapter 6

Discussion of Results

6.1. Introduction

This chapter entails the discussion of results obtained from the study. It will present and explain the findings of the research, which will be compared to the findings of previous studies.

6.2. Measures of Central Tendency

6.2.1. Organisational Commitment

The results indicate moderate levels of affective, normative and continuance commitment.

a) Affective Commitment

The mean score (M=24.51) for affective commitment indicates moderate levels of commitment. According to Allen & Meyer (1990), affective commitment refers to the emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organisation. The subjects in this study expressed moderate levels of affective commitment because they do not feel as "part of the family" in the organisation; they do not feel comfortable and has no feelings of personal competence. The reasons as to why subjects express moderate levels of affective commitment is because of the conditions of work, the organisation does not provide any job challenges and they also have a communication barrier with employees in the organisation. The subjects also feel that they can become easily attached to another organisation if that organisation increases the level of their affective commitment.

Research indicates that employees with strong affective commitment remain members of their profession because they want to do so. For example, professionals with a strong sense of affective commitment to their profession will keep up with developments in their profession, subscribe to trade journals, attend professional meetings, and participate in their professional association (Bagraim, 2003). Employees who are more involved and participate in their organization, have a better understanding of the organisations aims and objectives and thus enhances greater commitment from top management as well (Saunders, 1984). It is possible that employees perceive that their levels of emotional attachment are best predicted by work experiences that promote feelings of comfort in the organisation and personal competence (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Meyer and Allen's research found a relationship between affective commitment and higher levels of performance. Employees with strong affective commitment to the organisation work harder at their jobs and perform them better than those with weak affective commitment. Research suggests that employees with strong affective commitment are more valuable employees to the organisation. When commitment reflects an emotional link to the organisation, the organisation may benefit through a reduced turnover, increased productivity, higher job satisfaction, higher self actualization, and reduced overload among employees (Camilleri, 2002).

b) Normative Commitment

The mean score (M=26.25) for normative commitment indicates moderate levels of commitment. According to Allen & Meyer (1990), normative commitment refers to the employee's feelings or

obligation to remain in the organisation. Weiner (1982) cited in Mathieu & Zajac (1990) suggest that normative commitment is a process whereby organisational actions as well as individual tendencies lead to the development of organisational commitment. The subjects expressed moderate levels of normative commitment because of the factors that they are faced with, such as poor facilities, lack of training and development, promotional opportunities, compensation, work stress and life insecurity. According to Brunetto (2003), a study undertaken on Australian police officers suggests that police officers (being similar to other employees) will feel most committed to the organisation when they are involved in decision making, feel supported by superiors and receive adequate levels of feedback about their job performance and job expectations.

Employees with strong normative commitment remain members of their profession because they feel they ought to do so (Bagraim, 2003). Research carried out on organisational commitment indicates that an employee with strong normative commitment is attracted to the organisation by feelings of obligation and duty (Camilleri, 2002). It is thus anticipated that normative commitment will be positively related to work behaviour such as job performance, work attendance, and organisational citizenship. Normative commitment might have a particularly important impact on the manner in which the work is carried out.

Research indicates that normative commitment is not a concept directly relevant to "work" itself (Martin, Riemens, & Wajcman, 2000). The obligation of a person is much more directed to particular people than to abstract concepts (eg., organisation, career) and people feel that they

should stay with their organisations largely because of their loyalty to the people with whom they work (eg., bosses and staff) (Martin, Riemens, & Wajcman, 2000).

Commitment to an organisation not only means commitment to work but also to other objects, such as bosses, staff, and other relationships because work is a small part of relationships in an organisation (Wang & Armstrong, 2001). It can thus be concluded that normative commitment is a useful concept in an organisations situation because employees are not only obligated to remain in the organisation because of their work but also be loyal to their bosses, staff, etc.

c) Continuance Commitment

The mean score (M=25.01) for continuance commitment indicates moderate levels of commitment. According to Allen & Meyer (1990), continuance commitment refers to commitment based on the costs associated with leaving the organisation. Continuance commitment develops as an individual makes investments (e.g., the time and effort put into acquiring profession-specific knowledge and skills) that would be lost or reduced in value if he/she leaves the profession (Meyer et al. 1993). According to the studies done by Irving, Coleman & Cooper (1997), continuance commitment often develops because of the costs associated with leaving the organisation that result from investments in the organisation as well as perceived lack of alternative employment opportunities. The lack of alternatives could prevent the individual from leaving the organisation

The moderate levels indicate that continuance commitment among the subjects is not very strong. The subjects in this study expressed moderate levels of continuance commitment because they feel that leaving their current organisation requires considerable sacrifice, and there would be scarcity of available alternatives. Many of the subjects in this study are married employees with families and would find it very difficult or risky to leave the organisation even if they wanted to. Research indicates that employees with strong continuance commitment remain with their profession because they realize that they have too much to lose by not doing so (Bagraim, 2003). Older employees will show a high level of continuance commitment while younger employees show a low level of continuance commitment (Bagraim, 2003).

Research carried out by the Human Synergistics found that people, who stay feel they cannot afford to leave the organisation, often do the minimum amount of work required to keep their jobs (Internet, 2).

Camilleri (2002) undertook a study on a public sector organisation and found that committed employees tend to be more innovative and creative, and are less likely to leave an organisation than those who are uncommitted. Low job performance, absenteeism and turnover are costly to organisations; organisational commitment is generally assumed to be a desirable quality that should be fostered in employees.

The results of this study indicate that subjects expressed moderate levels of continuance commitment. Accordingly, research carried out by the Human Synergistics found that people

expressed moderate levels of continuance commitment because they feel they cannot afford to leave the organisation due to lack of alternatives. However, research carried out by Bagraim (2003) indicates that employees expressed strong levels of continuance commitment because they realize they have too much to lose by not doing so.

6.2.2. Job Satisfaction

a) Pay

The mean score for pay (M= 2.18) indicates that employees are dissatisfied with this dimension. Subjects in this study showed that they were dissatisfied with their level of pay because they feel that they are overworked and underpaid and not compensated for any extra effort that they put into their jobs.

Research carried out indicates that 60% of workers are dissatisfied with their pay they receive from their employers (Sunday Times, 2003). Although some studies have found that pay is not linked to job satisfaction, others have reported that pay is significantly associated with workers' job and satisfaction (Hamermesh, 1999). According to Hamermesh (1999), it is apparent that variations in pay affect job satisfaction. When pay is seen as being fair, based on the job and individual skill levels, and community pay standards, satisfaction is likely to result (Robbins, 1996).

Luthans (1995) asserts that wages and salaries are recognized to be a significant, but a complex and diverse factor in job satisfaction. Luthans (1995) postulates that money not only assists

people to attain their basic needs but is instrumental in providing upper-level need satisfaction. He adds that employees often see pay as a reflection of how management views their contribution to the organisation.

b) Supervision

The mean score for supervision (M=11.67) indicates that employees are dissatisfied with their supervision. In this study, there are employees who are satisfied and employees who are dissatisfied with their supervision. The subjects in this study showed that they were dissatisfied with their supervision because they feel that their supervisors do not have a very approachable attitude and they have their so called "favourite" employees. Employees think that supervisors in the organization are not fair because of the unfair way the rules are applied. Employees will also be dissatisfied with their supervisors because of the real power they hold over the employees.

According to Tulgan (2004), supervisors are the most important people in the workplace because they define the parameters of work and gives performance reviews, raises and opportunities to work on special projects. The most important function of the supervisor is to help avoid, identify and solve problems.

In a study carried out on 150 executives, 43% of those surveyed reported that 'how you get along with your manager and what your manager thinks of you' are the chief factors leading to job satisfaction (Tulgan, 2004)

According to Bassett (1994), supervisors who act considerate towards their workers have the more highly satisfied work group, thus it may be possible to generate high worker satisfaction through kindly thoughtful leader behaviour. Dissatisfied workers generally describe their supervisors in unfavourable terms. Dissatisfaction tends to be expressed through criticism towards those associated with it. A supervisor's criticism of an employee also generates dissatisfaction. The more frequent and severe the criticisms pointed at a worker in a performance appraisal, the greater the workers dissatisfaction with his/her supervisor.

According to a study done on Network professionals, results reveal that the communication and relationship with their supervisors need to be improved because only 39% of respondents say that the communication and relationship with their supervisors are clear and timely. It can thus be deduced that majority of the respondents were dissatisfied with their supervision (Blum, 2002).

c) Working Conditions

The mean score for working conditions (M= 17.29) shows that employees are slightly satisfied with their working conditions. It is possible from the results that the subjects perceive the working conditions as acceptable. Most of the subjects are slightly satisfied because they do not need to work overtime, which gives them time to spend with their family and makes their lives risk free.

Robbins (1998) suggest that the working conditions play an important role in enhancing job satisfaction, i.e. employees are always concerned with the working environment for both personal

comfort and facilitating doing a good job. Kasl (1981) indicates that stressful conditions tend to be chronic and that a company can improve job satisfaction by improving working conditions. However, Lovgren, Rasmussen & Engstrom (2002), found that in a healthcare institution, low ratings were found in many respects for working conditions.

Robbins (1996) states that working conditions are seen to impact on job satisfaction as employees are concerned with their work environment for both personal comfort and facilitating good work. People prefer environments that are not dangerous and uncomfortable. Working conditions such as hours of work, rest pauses, equipment, temperature, ventilation, humidity, music, lighting, toilets and location are all determinants of an employee satisfaction (Dessler, 1981).

According to Fairris & Bruton (1999), with regard to working conditions, jobs vary as to the degree of danger or tedium of the tasks involved and workers vary as to the extent to which they value jobs that are free from the workplace risks. Therefore, in some instances, workers can accept a job with good working conditions by accepting a lower pay and employers can attract workers to conditions that are bad by offering to pay more.

d) Opportunities for Advancement

The mean score (M= 9.00) indicates that employees are neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with opportunities for advancement. The subjects in this study expressed a neutral level for opportunities for advancement. According to informal discussions, subjects mentioned that the

police force is one organisation that is very stagnant when it comes to opportunities for advancement.

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Studies undertaken on lower ranked police officers indicated that there is an increasing dissatisfaction with promotional procedures (Brunetto & Wharton, 2003). Schermerhorn, Hunt & Osborne (1991) postulates that promotion opportunities can influence whether or not people develop positive feelings about their work and also enhance their opportunities for further advancement.

Robbins (1998) asserts that employees expect promotional opportunities that are fair, and in line with their perceived expectations, as individuals will only be satisfied in their jobs if the promotional policies are fair and just, thus enhancing opportunities for personal growth and increased social status. However, research findings on professional nurses indicated that they were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with opportunities for advancement (Kunaviktikul, Nuntasupawat, Srisuphan & Booth, 2000).

Research conducted on job satisfaction found that apart from support structures, feedback and involvement in decision making, employees must also perceive that their jobs have a rewarding future. Such perceptions will depend on structures that develop, expand, and reward valued skills and offer the opportunity for employees to move into new and more challenging positions within their organizations (Pergamit & Veum, 1999).

While some employees indicate that opportunities for advancement are stagnant in their organisation, other employees indicate a promotion in their organizations over the past year; however, most promotions did not involve any change in job or position. The majority of events that employees called 'promotions' involved no change in duties or were upgrade of the current position. According to this study, men were more likely to be promoted than women and whites were more likely to be promoted than blacks or Hispanics (Pergamit & Veum, 1999).

e) Recognition

The mean score for recognition (M=13.53) indicates that employees show low levels of satisfaction with the recognition they receive. Data gathered from the unstructured interviews indicated that the subjects express low levels of satisfaction because they are not given the opportunity of being "somebody" in the organisation, they do not receive praise for doing a good job and are not given the chance of making use of their abilities so that they can be recognized for new ideas and inputs.

Robbins (1998) suggest that recognition can be a potent motivator which include, personally congratulating an employee in private for a good job, sending a handwritten note or an e-mail message acknowledging something positive that the employee has done. Recognition can also be viewed in two ways that is, monetary and non-monetary recognition (Gruneberg, 1979). Studies carried out on network professionals also found that individuals were dissatisfied with the recognition they receive. According to Reed (2001), a congratulatory letter from the boss is recognition, pure and simple but might be longer remembered and more highly valued than a

routine monetary reward or raise. The satisfaction among most employees lies in the recognition that they receive from their superiors. Apart from receiving satisfaction on the job, recognition can also be seen as a powerful motivator (Reed, 2001).

f) Relation with co-workers

The mean score (M= 7.22) for relation with co-workers indicate that employees are satisfied with this dimension. Employees find their jobs satisfying when they get along with their co-workers. The subjects in this study are satisfied with this dimension, because they have both a professional as well as social interaction with the employees' in the organisation leading to job satisfaction. It is generally accepted therefore, that having co-workers who are friends will increase an individual's job satisfaction. Employees spend a large part of their time in the workplace and want to feel a belonging.

Robbins (1998) maintains that employees obtain more out of work than just money or tangible rewards. He maintains further that for the majority of the employees, the social interaction is also important and by having friendly and supportive colleagues leads to increased job satisfaction. Studies done by Akihito, Kimio, Akirea, Koichi, Kanehisa (1998) shows that social support from colleagues has been shown to be positively associated with job satisfaction. Other studies report that trusts among co-workers are significant predictors of workers job satisfaction (Blum, 2002).

According to George and Jones (1996), the social influence from co-workers can be an important determinant of a worker's job satisfaction because co-workers are usually around, often have

similar types of jobs and often have certain things in common with a worker (such as educational background).

g) Equitable Rewards

The mean score (M=7.11) for equitable rewards indicates that employees levels of satisfaction is low, i.e., they perceive the rewards to be inequitable. The low levels indicate that employees are not being fairly rewarded and are dissatisfied with this dimension. The dissatisfaction arises from the feeling of not being acknowledged or rewarded for a good work done.

The key here is not how much employees get paid but rather, the perception of fairness, i.e., whether or not the employees believe that they are being fairly rewarded for what they do. Employees will sometimes compare employees from other organizations, in similar positions to see what they are getting paid or what they believe employees in similar positions within their own organizations get paid. If employees feel that they are being fairly rewarded for their jobs, then satisfaction will occur.

Similarly, employees seek fair promotion policies and practices. Promotions provide opportunities for personal growth, more responsibilities and increased social status. Individuals that perceive promotion decisions are made in a fair and just manner are likely to experience satisfaction from their jobs (Robbins, 1993).

6.3. Intercorrelations

6.3.1. Organisational Commitment

The results of the intercorrelations indicated no significant correlation among affective, normative and continuance commitment, which implies that affective, normative and continuance commitment are independent on each other. This indicates that an employee's emotional attachment to organisation is not related to their obligation to remain in the organisation nor with the costs associated with leaving an organisation.

Irving, Coleman & Cooper (1997) found no significant correlation between affective and continuance commitment among employees in a variety of occupations at a Canadian governmental agency. The results could be attributed to the possible era of outsourcing, downsizing and changing organisational structures, where employees focus their attachment to their occupations than on the organisation.

Allen & Meyer (1990) found a significant and positive correlation between affective and normative commitment among employees at two manufacturing firms. The employees who felt comfortable in their roles and who felt competent in their jobs expressed greater affective attachment and obligation to the organisation.

Allen & Meyer (1997) also found no significant correlation between affective and continuance commitment among university employees. It is possible from the results that the strength of the

employees need to remain in the organisation is not related to their emotional attachment to the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1997).

According to Meyer et al. (1993), found a positive and significant correlation between affective and normative commitment among student nurses. It is possible that the intention of the student nurses is to remain attached and loyal in the nursing profession.

Meyer & Allen (1990) found a positive and significant relationship between continuance and normative commitment. The results suggest that employees felt that they "themselves" had invested in the organisation and do not have any intentions of leaving, and also expressed a degree of loyalty to the organisation.

6.3.2. <u>Job Satisfaction</u>

6.3.2.1. Pay

The results of the intercorrelations indicated a positive significant correlation between pay and working conditions, supervision, opportunities for advancement and recognition at the 0.01 level. The results also indicated that pay correlated significantly with relation with co-workers at the 0.05 level and that there was no significant correlation between pay and equitable rewards.

The results of the study reveal that the dimension pay is associated with the dimensions working conditions, supervision, opportunities for advancement and recognition and relation with co-workers. This indicates that if any changes (increase or decrease) occur in pay, it will create

changes (increase or decrease) in the dimensions working conditions, supervision, opportunities for advancement and recognition and relation with co-workers but the strength of the changes depends on the correlation co-efficient (r).

The result of the study reveals that the dimension pay is not associated with equitable. This indicates if any changes occur in pay (increase or decrease), it will not create changes (increase or decrease) in equitable rewards. This indicates that both these dimensions are independent on each other.

The results of the study are similar to the research carried out by Booth et al. (2000), who found that pay has direct positive correlation with opportunities for advancement, co-workers, and supervision. Similarly research carried out by Watson & Slack (1993) on full time employees at a university, found the dimensions recognition and opportunities for advancement are correlated with each other. According to the above results the dimensions used by Booth et al. (2000), Watson and Slack (1993) reveal that the dimensions are dependant on each other.

6.3.2.2. Working Conditions

The results indicate a significant correlation between working conditions and supervision, relation with co-workers, opportunities for advancement, equitable rewards and recognition at the 0.01 level.

The results of the study indicate that the dimension working conditions are associated with the dimensions of supervision, relation with co-workers, opportunities for advancement, equitable rewards and recognition. This further explains that if any changes (increase or decrease) occur in working conditions, it will create changes in the supervision, relation with co-workers, opportunities for advancement, equitable rewards and recognition but the strength of the changes depends on the correlation co-efficient (r).

Robbins (1996), states that working conditions impact on job satisfaction as employees are concerned with their work environment for both personal comfort and facilitating doing good work. Similarly, according to the Network Industry Survey (2002), the majority of the respondents indicated high levels of job satisfaction and working conditions was one of the six factors with a high correlation, which indicates that working conditions is one of the factors that provide the greatest impact on job satisfaction. However, Lovgren et al. (2002), found that the dimension working conditions had a low correlation with the job satisfaction dimensions used in the study.

6.3.2.3. Supervision

The results indicate a significant correlation between supervision and relation with co-workers, opportunities for advancement, equitable rewards and recognition at the 0.01 level. The results indicate that the dimension supervision is associated with relation with co-workers, opportunities for advancement, equitable rewards and recognition, which indicate that if any changes occur in supervision, it will create changes in the dimensions relation with co-workers, opportunities for

advancement, equitable rewards and recognition but the strength depends on the correlation co-efficient (r).

Similarly, Argyris (1998) reflects that immediate supervisors who empower their employees to do their jobs with more freedom and responsibility will create an environment of increased job satisfaction. Robbins (1996) goes on to say that the behaviour of ones boss is a major determinant of satisfaction. This can be expanded to recognition for good work. Employees who receive recognition from their supervisors (whether tangible or intangible) should have greater levels of satisfaction than those employees who receive little or no recognition. Similarly, in the study undertaken on department heads and subordinates in 44 administrative bureaucracies, it was found that supervision was associated with co-workers, salary and the work itself (Bacharach & Aiken, 1980).

6.3.2.4 Relation with co-workers

The results indicate a significant correlation between relation with co-workers and opportunities for advancement, equitable rewards and recognition at the 0.01 level. This indicates that the dimension relation with co-workers is associated with the dimensions opportunities for advancement, equitable rewards and recognition. This suggests that if any change occurs with relation with co-workers, it will create changes in the dimensions opportunities for advancement, equitable rewards and recognition but the strength depends on the correlation co-efficient.

The social influence from co-workers can be an important determinant of a worker's job satisfaction because co-workers are usually around, often have similar types of jobs and often have certain things in common with a worker (such as educational background), George & Jones (1996). Similarly, according to the Network Industry Survey (2002), the factor that brought about the most job satisfaction amongst the respondents was the relationship with co-workers. More than 70% of the respondents agree that quality of people in the organization can have a potent influence on the job satisfaction levels of the employees. However, Kunaviktikul et al. (2000), in their study, found that a difference in the characteristics of co-workers was the most frequent cause of conflict of nurses in the hospitals. On the basis of interviews with workers in an automobile plant, Walker & Guest (1952), state that isolated workers disliked their jobs and gave social interaction has the principle reason.

6.3.2.5. Opportunities for advancement

The results indicate a significant correlation between opportunities for advancement and equitable rewards and recognition. The results of the study reveals that opportunities for advancement is associated with equitable rewards and recognition, that is, if any change occurs in opportunities for advancement, it will create changes in equitable rewards and recognition.

According to the Network Industry survey (2002), respondents showed the highest correlation in opportunities for advancement as compared to the monetary recognition of achievement. People from the company (52%) indicated that they are very satisfied with their opportunities for advancement and with their current overall job overall.

6.3.2.6. Equitable Rewards

The results indicate a significant correlation between equitable rewards and recognition at the 0.01 level. This indicates that equitable rewards and recognition are associated, that is, any changes occur in equitable reward will create changes in the dimension recognition.

According to Atchison (2003), rewards are the consequences that are delivered as a result of a desired behaviour. Rewards are contingent on performance and have a powerful effect on future performance. Reward is a positive consequence of performance, which is under the control of the employee.

6.4. Hypotheses

The relevant hypotheses that were formulated will be discussed in detail. The hypotheses are as follows:

6.4.1. Hypothesis 1

There is a significant correlation between the dimensions of job satisfaction (pay, working conditions, supervision, relation with co-workers, opportunities for advancement, equitable rewards, recognition) and the dimensions of organisational commitment (affective, normative and continuance commitment).

a) Job Satisfaction Dimensions and Normative Commitment

The results revealed a significant relationship between the dimensions of job satisfaction (pay, working conditions, supervision, relation with co-workers, opportunities for advancement, equitable rewards and recognition) and normative commitment. This indicates that the job satisfaction dimensions are associated with normative commitment. It reveals that if any variation occurs in the job satisfaction dimensions, it will create variations in normative commitment. As employee's satisfaction with regard to the job increases, they also feel more obligated to remain with the organisation.

According to Weiner (1984), normative commitment describes a process whereby organisational actions (e.g. selection, socialization procedures) as well as individual predispositions (e.g. personal organisational value congruence and generalized loyalty and or duty attitudes) lead to the development of organisational commitment.

Allen & Meyer (1990), found that an employee would have strong normative commitment to the organisation if significant others (e.g. relatives) have been long-term employees of the organization and have stressed the importance of organisational loyalty. However, a study undertaken in a higher education institution, found that employees who believed they had more control over their work environment felt less obligated to stay in the organisation (Brown & Gaylor, 2002).

According to Taormina (1999), employees were satisfied with the dimensions of job satisfaction (pay, promotion, supervision, and the work itself. The study indicated that employees who felt that there were good career opportunities in their companies were much more likely to feel an obligatory commitment to their employing organisation.

It can therefore be concluded that employees who are satisfied with their jobs will feel obligated to remain with the organisation.

b) Job Satisfaction Dimensions and Affective Commitment

The results revealed no significant relationship between job satisfaction dimensions and affective commitment. This indicates that job satisfaction dimensions and affective commitment are not associated, i.e. if any variation occurs in job satisfaction dimensions, it will not influence affective commitment.

Allen, Meyer & Smith (1993) found that there was a significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and affective commitment. This indicates that as employees job satisfaction increases, employees tend to develop emotional attachment to the organisation.

According to research undertaken on nurse empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational commitment found that empowerment had a significant positive effect on affective commitment and trust in management, and organisational commitment is highly related to job satisfaction (Kuokkanen, Kilpi, Katajisto, 2003). However, in a study conducted on a higher education

institution, it was found that work locus of control was inversely related to affective commitment. That is, employees who believe that they had more control over their work environment felt less emotional attachment to the university (Brown & Gaylor, 2002).

It contradicts with the above study because probably due to the subject's nature of the work and working environment are different. Job satisfaction and organisational commitment levels depend on subject's biographical variables and nature of the work and working surroundings.

c) Job Satisfaction Dimensions and Continuance Commitment

The results indicate no significant relationship between job satisfaction dimensions and continuance commitment. This indicates that job satisfaction dimensions are not associated with continuance commitment, that is, certain employees will choose to look for alternatives if they are unhappy with the aspects of their job.

Dunham, Grube & Castaneda (1994) postulate that if an employee is satisfied in his career, it is expected to provide more direct measures of career-related investments, which could be put to risk if the individual left the organisation. Wook et al (1997) suggest that increased effort and energy by employees will increase their continuance commitment, because leaving the organisation will result in the loss of valuable resources spent for the organisation.

Allen, Meyer & Smith (1993), found that job satisfaction was negatively related to continuance commitment, which means that if an employee is unhappy with the aspects of his/her job, he/she will look for alternatives irrespective of the investments accrued.

Brown & Gaylor (2002), in their study of higher education institution found that work locus of control was directly related to continuance commitment. That is, employees who believed they had less control over their work environment reported higher levels of continuance commitment because they fewer alternatives for working for the university.

6.4.2. Hypothesis 2

There is a significant difference in the perceptions of the respective dimensions of organisational commitment (affective, normative and continuance) among the respective biographical variables (age, marital status, home language, ethnic group, highest education and length of service).

a) Gender and Organisational Commitment

The results indicate no significant difference between males and females in their level of affective, normative and continuance commitment. The present study indicates that males and females expressed the similar levels of affective, normative and continuance commitment.

The male and female subjects in this study expressed equal perceptions towards emotional attachment to the organisation, obligations to remain in the organisation and costs associated with leaving the organisation and the study results reveal that gender does not play a vital role in organisational commitment. Therefore, the males and females in this study have the same levels

of affective, normative and continuance commitment, which indicates that changes occurring in the organisation will have an equal impact on both the males and females in the organisation.

According to Winter, Taylor & Sarros (2000), no significant difference was found between gender and organisational commitment among academics. However, Irving, Coleman & Cooper (1997) found that men experienced higher levels of occupational continuance commitment. A number of studies have documented that women are more committed to their organisations than men; one explanation is that women have less perceived alternatives than men have (Angle & Perry, 1983).

Fagenson (1993) found that the more women in a work group, the lower the commitment of the men and the more men there were in a work group, the higher the organisational commitment among women.

b) Biographical variables (age, marital status, home language, ethnic group, highest education and length of service) and Affective Commitment

The results indicate no significant difference in the level of affective commitment among the biographical variables (age, marital status, home language, ethnic group, highest education, length of service). The results indicate that subjects in these groups express similar levels of affective commitment.

According to Meyer et al (1990), married employees expressed greater levels of affective commitment to remain with the organisation as compared to the single and divorced employees. The results also indicate that as people grow older they desire to become more attached to an organisation and remain within the community in which they have established their roots. According to Taormina (1999), married employees felt more emotional attachment to their employing organisations than did single employees. This could again reflect a tendency for married employees to be more family oriented and see the company as a kind of 'family provider' as opposed to single employees who, being more self-oriented, may view the employing organisation only as a source of income (a source they could readily change without affecting other people who depend on them) and therefore feel less emotional attachment to it.

Hackett et al. (1994), in their sample comprising registered nurses, found that age and length of service was positively related with affective commitment. The average age of nurses was 38 years, 74% were married and had an average of 15 years in nursing whereas their average hospital tenure was 9 years. Contrary to this result, Hackett et al. (1994) founds that age and length of service was unrelated to affective commitment amongst bus operators. Irving et al. (1997) suggests that neither age nor educational level were significantly related to affective commitment.

A study carried out on personnel at a state government agency found that racial differences had the greatest impact on affective commitment. The more ethnic employees in the work group studied, the less committed were its white workers. The reverse did not hold true. Organisational

commitment of minority employees was not affected by the number of white employees in the work group. However, an extensive research review concluded that, in general, minority employees in work groups tend to exhibit lower levels of organisational commitment (Milliken & Martin, 1996).

The affective commitment of young and old employees is attributed to work experiences inside the organisation. Whether employees are old or young their affective commitment will depend on how they accept work experiences inside the organisation (Meyer et al.1996).

c) **Biographical variables (age, marital status, home language, ethnic group, highest education and length of service) and Normative Commitment**

The results indicate a significant difference in the levels of normative commitment among the age groups, home language groups and the ethnic groups. The results indicate that respondents in the different age groups, home language groups and ethnic groups expressed different feelings to remain in the organisation.

The employees among the respective biographical groups expressed moderate levels of normative commitment to the organisation. It is possible that respondents in the respective biographical groups feel that moving from one job to another is not ethical, however, they perceive that loyalty is important and express a sense of obligation to the organisation. The difference lies in the age group 31-40 were these respondents have a lower normative commitment compare to the other age groups. These respondents are middle aged, experienced

and marketable and will be able to find employment elsewhere where they will have a strong loyalty and obligation to remain with the organisation.

In terms of the ethnic group and the home language groups, the African respondents and the English speaking respondents displayed a higher level of normative commitment than the other race groups and language groups respectively.

In a study comprising registered nurses, Hackett et al. (1994), found that age and length of service was positively related to normative commitment, in that the nurses had an obligation to remain in the organisation because they served on long period of time and they were not in a position to seek for another employment. Contrary to this result, Hackett et al. (1994) found no significant difference between normative commitment and age and length of service among bus operators. All age groups (young, middle and old) subjects in their study expressed more or less similar perceptions towards the normative commitment. Similarly, more experienced, less experienced and recently employed subjects expressed equal perceptions towards the normative commitment.

d)   **Biographical variables (age, marital status, home language, ethnic group, highest education and length of service) and Continuance Commitment**

The results indicate no significant difference in the level of continuance commitment among the biographical variables (age, marital status, home language, ethnic group, highest education and length of service). The results indicate that subjects in the different age groups, marital status group, home language group, ethnic groups, highest education group and length of service

expressed similar levels of continuance commitment based on the costs that the employee associates with leaving the organisation.

According to Shore, Barksdale & Shore (1995), biographical characteristics have been some of the most commonly tested antecedents of continuance commitment. Age and tenure and, to a lesser extent, education, have been viewed as contributing to the development of continuance commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Angle & Lawson, 1993; Cohen & Lowenberg, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1984). For example, older workers with high tenure may feel tied to an organization by pension funds and company-specific training, while those with low education levels may be unlikely to have skills transferable to other organisational settings (Allen & Meyer, 1990). The assumption has been that biographical characteristics represent constraints on future employment options because people with certain characteristics have made nonportable investments, "side bets," in their organizations (Becker, 1960). The accrual of side bets over time should make leaving more costly and hence increase continuance commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1984). In fact, Mathieu and Zajac's, (1990) meta-analysis suggested that age, job tenure, and education were more strongly associated with affective commitment than with continuance commitment and that organisational tenure was somewhat more related to continuance commitment than to affective commitment.

Despite the mixed results for studies of self-rated continuance commitment, it was expected that age, tenure, and education contributes to manager-rated continuance commitment. The reasoning is based on attribution theory, which suggests that people tend to explain behavior in terms of

internal causes (Jones & Nisbett, 1972). In contrast, managers will attribute employee continuance commitment to internal causes (firm-specific investments such as tenure or lack of marketability due to low education level). In other words, a manager would be more likely to infer that an employee stayed with an organisation because of lack of better opportunities (i.e., continuance commitment) if that employee had greater side bets, was older, had high job and organisational tenure, and had a lower level of education. However, there was no reason to expect that managers would associate an employee's staying with an organisation because of emotional attachment (i.e., affective commitment) with any particular age, tenure, or education level.

6.4.3. Hypothesis 3

There is a significant difference in the perceptions of the respective dimensions of job satisfaction (pay, working conditions, supervision, relation with co-workers, opportunities for advancement, equitable rewards, recognition) among the respective biographical variables (age, marital status, home language, ethnic group, highest education, length of service).

a) Gender and Job satisfaction dimensions

The results indicate no significant difference in the perceptions of the job satisfaction dimensions between males and females. The results indicate that males and females express similar levels of job satisfaction. With regard to the dimensions used in this study, the results indicate that both males and females were dissatisfied with most aspects of job satisfaction, which has a negative impact on work performance and productivity. The research evidence about possible differences

in job satisfaction between men and women employees is inconsistent and contradictory (Schultz & Schultz, 1998).

Witt & Nye (1992) evaluated potential gender differences between fairness and job satisfaction among 12.979 personnel in different organisations systems. The results indicated that the fairness (pay and promotions) satisfaction relationship was higher for men than women. Witt & Nye (1992) maintains further that different management strategies should not be used for men and women when the objective is to increase job satisfaction through fairness perceptions among personnel.

According to Schultz & Schultz (1998), it may not be gender, as such, that relates to job satisfaction as much as the group of factors that vary with sex. For example, women are typically paid less than men for the same work and the opportunities for promotion are fewer. Most women employees believe that they have to work harder and be more outstanding on the job than men employees before they receive comparable rewards. These factors however influence job satisfaction.

Some researchers have reported no gender differences in overall job satisfaction (Fry & Greenfield, 1980; Sauser & York, 1978, Smith & Plant, 1982; Weaver, 1980 cited in Witt & Nye, 1992) whereas others have reported relationships between job satisfaction and gender (D'Archy, Syrotiuk & Siddique, 1984, Forgionne & Peters cited in Witt & Nye, 1992).

Most studies that have compared men and women in their global job satisfaction have found few differences. Greenhaus, Parasuraman & Wormley (1990) found no significant gender differences in their study, even though the distribution of jobs was not the same in their sample of males and females. Males were more likely to have managerial/professional jobs and females were more likely to have clerical jobs. This suggests that women may be happier with less on the job than men.

A study carried out by de Vaus & Mcallister (1991), on 6000 employees in Western European countries found no clear pattern of differences between males and females in job satisfaction.

Schermerhorn et al. (1991) generally found that men appear more satisfied than women, ie, women are always troubled by sexual harassment, salary inequities, and limited opportunities for advancement.

It compares with results above in that the statistics in this study show that females are also more likely to take on clerical jobs than men who occupy managerial jobs. Female employees have to work harder in order to be recognized.

b) **Biographical variables (age, marital status, home language, ethnic group, highest education and length of service) and Pay**

The results indicate a significant difference in the satisfaction with pay among the marital status groups, home language groups and ethnic groups. The results indicate that respondents in the different groups expressed different levels of satisfaction with regard to satisfaction with pay.

According to the present study, the difference lies in the age group 41-50, were the employees falling in this group were the most dissatisfied with regard to pay. According to the marital status group, the mean score indicates that married employees were the most dissatisfied, with a mean score of (1.87), single employees indicated that they were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied (2.73), and divorced were dissatisfied (2.00). The difference with regard to the marital status group lies with the single employees because they are unsure of their feelings with regard to pay unlike the married and divorced employees. Single employees will not have as much obligations as the married and divorced employees, so they will be happy with what they get until they find a better job.

Studies have shown that the sources of job satisfaction differ for single individuals than those who are married. It has been stated that married individuals are always dissatisfied with the pay that they receive compared to single individual's, because married people have more obligations than single individuals (Singh, Fujita & Nortan, 2004).

According to ethnic groups, more whites than non-white employees report satisfaction with their job. Although there is a large, thriving middle class among black and ethnic minority employees, large numbers of persons who want jobs are unemployed, are employed irregularly, or are too discouraged to seek employment. Many who have full time work are confined to low-level jobs that offer marginal pay. Thus the primary concern for many workers is not satisfaction but finding a job that pays a decent salary (Schultz & Schultz, 1998). The research study results reveals that most of the subjects in all ethnic groups are dissatisfied with pay, among all the ethnic groups majority of the subjects are very dissatisfied, few subjects experience low levels of dissatisfaction compared to other groups.

According to the home language group, the English speaking people had a mean score of (1.61), Afrikaans (2.00) and Zulu (2.71). The difference in the home language group lies among the Zulu speaking people because they neither agree nor disagree with their pay.

c) **Biographical variables (age, marital status, home language, ethnic group, highest education and length of service) and working condition**

The results indicate a significant difference in the satisfaction with working conditions among the home language group and the ethnic group. The respondents in the different groups expressed different levels of satisfaction with working conditions.

Respondents in the home language group in this study indicated that they were slightly satisfied, with a mean score of (15.39) for the English speaking people, Afrikaans (18.50) and Zulu (19.09).

The difference with regard to this group lies with the English speaking people because they neither agree nor disagree with their working conditions. During the unstructured interview, employees revealed at times they feel overloaded with work and they have to face unfair deadlines and long hours.

Studies carried out on professional nurses found that subjects were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with their working conditions (Kunaviktikul et al. 2000). Robbins (1996) states that employees are concerned about the environment in which they work.

According to the ethnic group, the Whites had a mean score of (15.33), African (19.17) and Indians (15.58). The difference in the ethnic group lies with the African population because they are slightly satisfied with their working conditions compared to the other groups. The White groups and Indian groups have similar mean score, which indicates that they have similar perceptions towards the working conditions. The African group perceptions are contradicting with Indian and white groups.

Research undertaken by Jones, James, Bruni, & Sells (1977), matched black and white sailors in terms of the kind of jobs they were doing and found that blacks reported higher satisfaction than other ethnic groups. Schultz & Schultz (1998) found inconsistencies in this area were whites reported higher levels of job satisfaction, than the other ethnic groups.

d) Biographical variables (age, marital status, home language, ethnic group, highest education and length of service) and supervision

The results indicate a significant difference in the satisfaction with supervision among the marital status group, home language group and ethnic group. The respondents among the different groups expressed different level of satisfaction with regard to supervision.

The study results reveals that in both satisfied and dissatisfied levels, the married, single and divorce group subjects disclosed different perception towards the supervision, that is, married subjects level of supervision is different from single and divorce subjects. In this study the married group subjects are more dissatisfied compare to single and divorce subjects.

According to the home language group, the Zulu speaking subjects had a more positive attitude towards their supervisors than the other home language groups. This is expressed by the mean scores which indicate that Zulu speaking subjects had a mean score of (13.79), English speaking (9.56), Afrikaans (11.00). One could speculate that the Zulu speaking people are happy with the way supervisors handles their problems. This could be probably because, of the Zulu speaking subjects getting more preferential treatment regarding training, development, encouragement as they were a previously disadvantage group.

The study results reveal that African group subjects were more satisfied with the supervision compare to Whites, Indians and Coloured subjects. This is indicated by the mean scores, Africans (13.89), Whites (10.17), Indians (9.68) and Coloured (5.00). One can thus conclude that

the African employees are given a chance to progress and actively take part in the organisation with the help of their supervisors and probably because of the African group being previously disadvantaged.

d) **Biographical variables (age, marital status, home language, ethnic group, highest education and length of service) and Relation with co-workers**

The results indicate a significant difference in the satisfaction in terms of relation with co-workers among the home language group and ethnic group. The respondents among the different groups express different levels of satisfaction with regard to relation with co-workers.

The African group perceived relation with co-workers positively as compared to the Indians and whites. This is indicated by the mean scores, Africans (7.83), Whites (6.33), Indians (6.77). One could speculate that the African employees are more co-operative at the workplace which increases relation with co-workers. The African employees see the environment and their co-workers in a positive aspect with regard to their job. According to the interview, the friendly and supportive attitude from co-workers was one of the reasons that brought about job satisfaction. The Indian and white groups could probably have a lack of co-operation at workplace, racial differences. This impact negatively on relation with co-workers among the Indians and White subjects.

According to Robbins (1998), employees obtain more out of work than just money or tangible rewards. He maintains that, for the majority of the employees, the social interaction is also important and by having friendly and supportive colleagues leads to increased job satisfaction.

Snyder & Mayo (1991), in their study among employees in the regional office of a federally funded social service organisation found that co-worker relations were the only potential source of satisfaction to the organisation.

e) **Biographical variables (age, marital status, home language, ethnic group, highest**

   education and length of service) and Opportunities for advancement

The results indicate a significant difference in the satisfaction with opportunities for advancement among age group, the home language group and ethnic groups. The respondents in these groups express different feelings with regard to opportunities for advancement.

The age group 31-40 was dissatisfied with the opportunities for advancement compared to other age groups. This is concluded by the means scores for the different age groups, 21-30 (10.36), 31-40 (7.90), 41-50 (9.10) and 51-60 (10.00). It can be assumed that subjects in the age group 31-40 are more experienced than subjects in the age group 21-30 and less settled personally compared to the older age groups. Subjects in the age groups 31-40 are not given sufficient increase in career development, therefore, these subjects are dissatisfied with the opportunities for advancement.

Studies carried out on police officers suggest that there was an increasing dissatisfaction with regard to advancement opportunities among the different age groups (Brunetto & Wharton, 2003).

Hellman (1997) found that employees 49 years and under were more likely to leave the organization than older employees. The reason for this was the middle age group employees have been offered better opportunities from other organisations compared to their present work organisation.

According to Spector (2000), job satisfaction at first declines with age, reaching the lowest level at around age 26-31, and then increasing through the rest of the working career. Due to retirement, an employees job satisfaction declines, blocking the possibilities for growth and achievement. Thus, older workers are passed over for promotion and have to take orders from younger people. It discloses that the age variable has vital influence on the level of job satisfaction.

According to the Home language group, English speaking people showed the most dissatisfaction with regard to advancement opportunities. This is indicated by the means scores, English (7.28), Afrikaans (8.00), and Zulu (10.82).

The African group showed that they were slightly satisfied with the opportunities for advancement. This can be expressed by the mean scores Whites (7.33), Africans (10.83), Indians (7.32).

One can speculate that due to the affirmative action introduced by the government to employees and employers, preferences are given to the previously disadvantaged employees. With regard to the SAPS under study, the African group is now given the opportunity to advance, which increases their job satisfaction, which in turn will make other ethnic groups dissatisfied. Interaction with employees from the SAPS stated that, the African group is given a chance to work alone and try their own methods of doing a job.

e) **Biographical variables (age, marital status, home language, ethnic group, highest education and length of service) and Equitable Rewards**

The results indicate a significant difference in the satisfaction with equitable rewards among the ethnic groups. This indicates that respondents express different levels of satisfaction with regard to equitable rewards.

The White group expressed low levels of equitable rewards as compared to the other ethnic groups. This is indicated by the mean scores, Whites (4.83), Africans (7.40), Indians (7.29) and Coloured (5.00). Organizations use equitable rewards to motivate employees. It can be assumed that African and Indians are receiving more encouragement in the form of equitable rewards to enhance their work efficiency. Robbins (1998) states that employees will be satisfied with their jobs if the equitable rewards are offered equally on the basis of work output.

Deihl (2002) found that correctional officers with 5 years or less employment and more than 10 years reported greater job satisfaction with equitable rewards than correctional workers with 6 to

10 years of employment. Correctional officers from rural prison locations reported greater job satisfaction with benefits and correctional officers with high satisfaction for relationship with supervisors reported the highest job satisfaction with equitable rewards and the work itself. A report published by the Families and Work Institute showed that equitable rewards have only 2% impact on job satisfaction (Ulla, & Jan, 1996).

f) **Biographical variables (age, marital status, home language, ethnic group, highest education and length of service) and Recognition**

The results indicate a significant difference in the level of satisfaction with recognition among the home language group and the ethnic group. This indicates that the respondents among these groups express different level of satisfaction with regard to recognition.

According to the Home language group, the Zulu speaking employees showed a slightly high level of satisfaction with regard to recognition. This is indicated by the mean scores; English (12.31), Afrikaans (11.50), Zulu (14.91). Interaction with employees from the SAPS reveals that the Zulu subjects are getting more recognition to increase their work output as the Zulu group was previously disadvantaged.

Brunetto & Wharton (2003) found that there were dissimilarities with regard to the language groups among police officers as they increased in rank. Numerous surveys from a wide range of companies continually point out that what employees want most out of their jobs is not money but recognition for their efforts and job satisfaction (Sautner, 2001). Similarly, employees

working for organizations providing employee recognition and job performance measurement enjoy higher levels of job satisfaction, according to a recently conducted nationwide survey, with a sample profile of 175 people. Employees indicated that they favour recognition from managers and supervisors as opposed to others and nearly 7 out of 10.69 percent of employees say non-monetary forms of recognition provide best motivation (Long Island Business News. 1999).

6.4.4 Hypothesis 4

The 7 dimensions of job satisfaction will significantly explain the variance in affective, normative and continuance commitment respectively.

a) Affective Commitment as a Dependant variable

The R Square indicates that 93.6% of the variance in affective commitment can be explained by the 7 predictors of job satisfaction. The F statistic (F= 139.007) produced is significant at the 0.000 level.

Opportunities for advancement were the best predictor of affective commitment because it had the highest Beta Value (0.322), which was significant. This was followed by relation with co-workers (beta=0.283), working conditions (beta=0.251) and equitable rewards (beta=0.211) which was not significant.

Research conducted by Bettoncourt & Brown (1997) suggests that employees who are given fair opportunities for promotions will be more satisfied than those who are not given these

opportunities. Those who are given equal opportunities for advancement will become emotionally attached to the organisation because they are being recognized by the organisation which increases their affective commitment. Robbins (1996), also states that individuals, who perceive their promotion decisions equally, are likely to experience satisfaction from their jobs.

According to Eby, Freeman, Rush & Lance (1999), affective commitment may be enhanced under conditions of high feedback and opportunities for advancement. As individuals are provided with these conditions, stronger feelings of loyalty to the organisation may develop. Job satisfaction precedes affective commitment since satisfaction represents only a subset of the factors that determines one's overall commitment to the organisation. According to Taormina (1999), employees will be induced to feel satisfied and attached to the organisation as long as they are offered opportunities for advancement.

b)   Normative Commitment as a Dependant variable

The R Square indicates that 99.2% of the variance in normative commitment can be explained by the 7 predictors of job satisfaction. The F statistic (F=1137.056) produced is significant at the 0.000 level.

Relation with co-workers was the best predictor of normative commitment because it had the highest Beta Value (0.269), which was significant. This was followed by equitable rewards (beta=0.241), working conditions (beta=0.218) and supervision (beta=0.189), which were all significant.

An integral aspect of job satisfaction is the interaction that employees have with their co-workers (Feldman, 1981; Reichers, 1986). Shore and Wayne, (1993) found that if the interaction between employees are favourable, the employees can function effectively and such positive interactions have been found to be highly related to employees' organisational citizenship behaviour. The employees will have feelings to remain in the organisation. Consequently, the higher the evaluations employees give to the support they perceive themselves as receiving from their co-workers, the more satisfied they will be on the job and the more committed or obligated they will be to the organisation. Similarly, if employees have an unfavourable interaction with their co-workers, this decreases their satisfaction and the do not feel obligated to remain in the organisation.

Also the subjects are offered more equitable rewards, which increase their obligation to remain with the organisation. The subjects revealed high level of job satisfaction towards the working conditions and effective supervision which leads to high levels of normative commitment.

c) Continuance commitment as a dependant variable

The R Square indicates that 93.6% of the variance in continuance commitment can be explained by the 7 predictors of job satisfaction. The F statistic (F=138.848) produced is significant at the 0.000 level.

Relation with co-workers was the best predictor of continuance commitment because it had the highest Beta Value (0.289), which was significant. This was followed by opportunities for advancement (beta=0.286) and working conditions (beta=0.205), which were not significant.

According to Zhou & George (2001), continuous commitment ensures that dissatisfied employees remain in their organisation and thus have the potential to voice their opinions. The subjects expressed high levels of satisfaction towards their relationship with co-workers, that is, subjects have co-operative, helpful, supportive, friendly relation with co-workers with increases continuous commitment. Results also show that dissatisfied employees with high continuance commitment were more likely to be creative when their co-workers provided them with useful feedback that enabled them to making improvements on their jobs. Therefore, employees who are dissatisfied derive some satisfaction due to the costs associated with the job and from their co-workers.

6.5 Conclusion

This chapter focused on the discussion of the results which was then compared and contrasted to previous research. The results indicated that the more a person is satisfied with his job, the more committed they are to their organization.

Chapter 7

Conclusions and Recommendations

7.1 Introduction

The study investigated the levels of organisational commitment and job satisfaction at the South African Police Services- Stanger. The main objective is to ascertain the relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction and to examine the influence of the biographical variables on organizational commitment and job satisfaction respectively.

7.2. Conclusions

The conclusions drawn from the results of the study are summarized as follows:

> The levels of affective, normative and continuance commitment were moderate.

> There was dissatisfaction with pay and supervision, slight satisfaction with working conditions, recognition and equitable rewards, employees were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with opportunities for advancement and there was satisfaction with relation with co-workers.

> There is no significant relationship among the dimensions of organizational commitment (Affective, Normative and Continuance).

> There is a significant relationship among pay, working conditions, supervision, opportunities for advancement and recognition.

> There is no significant relationship among pay and equitable rewards.

➤ There is no significant relationship between the dimensions of job satisfaction (pay, working conditions, supervision, relation with co-workers, opportunities for advancement, equitable rewards, and recognition) and affective and continuance commitment respectively.

➤ There is a significant relationship between the dimensions of job satisfaction (pay, working conditions, supervision, relation with co-workers, opportunities for advancement, equitable rewards, and recognition) and normative commitment.

➤ There is no significant difference between the organisational commitment dimensions and gender.

➤ There is no significant difference in the level of affective and continuance commitment among the biographical variables (age, marital status, home language, ethnic group, education level and length of service).

➤ There is a significant difference in the level of normative commitment among the age group, home language group and ethnic group.

➤ There is no significant difference between the job satisfaction dimensions and gender.

➤ There is a significant difference between the dimensions of job satisfaction (pay, working conditions, supervision, relation with co-workers, opportunities for advancement, equitable rewards, and recognition) and biographical variables (age, marital status, home language, ethnic group, education level and length of service).

➤ The results of the multiple regression analysis indicate that opportunities for advancement was significant in explaining the variance in Affective commitment.

➤ Relation with co-workers was the most important and significant variable in explaining the variance in normative commitment which was followed by equitable rewards, working conditions and supervision, all of which were also significant.

➤ Relation with co-workers was significant in explaining the variance in Continuance commitment, which was followed by opportunities for advancement and working conditions which were not significant.

7.3. Recommendations based on findings

From the findings of the research carried out on the SAPS in Stanger, the following recommendations can be made:

7.3.1 Organisational Commitment

a) Affective Commitment

According to this study, opportunities for advancement was the best predictor of affective commitment which was significant. In order for the South African Police Services -Stanger to increase affective commitment, they need to increase the opportunities for advancement. The next best predictors of affective commitment are relation with co-workers, working conditions and equitable rewards which were not significant.

In order for management to increase the levels of affective commitment among employees, they should implement career development programmmes, create supportive working environment,

provide challenging jobs, give employees opportunities to make their own decisions and create autonomy in the organization.

b) Normative Commitment

According to this study, working conditions, supervision, relation with co workers and equitable rewards were the best predictors of normative commitment which was significant. In order for the SAPS – Stanger to increase normative commitment, they need to increase working conditions, supervision, relation with co-workers and equitable rewards.

Management can increase the levels of normative commitment by providing employees with a promising view of their future career in the organisation, providing employees with benefits and explaining to them how it can be achieved which will make them feel obligated to remain with the organisation thus increasing their normative commitment.

c) Continuance Commitment

In the present study, relation with co-workers was the best predictor of continuance commitment which was significant. The SAPS – Stanger can increase their continuance commitment by increasing relation with co-workers. The next best predictors of continuance commitment are working conditions and opportunities for advancement which were not significant.

Management can achieve high levels of continuance commitment by providing creativity to the employees; provide employees with economic alternatives such as salary increments, tangible

and intangible rewards and recognition which will increase their continuance commitment. Management must also provide accurate realistic job preview and useful training for employees which will indirectly increase their continuance commitment.

7.3.2 Job Satisfaction

a) Pay

The employees indicated that they were dissatisfied with the pay that they receive. Due to the dissatisfaction in pay, employees undertake part time jobs to make extra money. In this way, employees do not give their 100% dedication to their police jobs. This should be an area of concern for management as this affects the morale and well-being of the employees. The concerned authorities should consider improving satisfaction of pay by implementing graded pay structures, informing individuals of their level of responsibility and the degree of skill that is required and the level of performance that is required of them.

b) Supervision

The employees expressed dissatisfaction with regard to supervision. In order for management to improve this, they should remove barriers that hinder their staff from doing a good job, establish an open door policy to encourage employees to speak to supervisors in order to reduce stress and improve trust, provide feedback on performance, provide clarity on the nature of tasks and give employees a chance to participate in decision making.

c) Working Conditions

Employees expressed that they were slightly satisfied with working conditions. In order for them to attain total satisfaction, management should create an environment that is conducive for them to work. Management should develop strategies to help employees deal with stress. These strategies include, setting realistic goals, redesigning of jobs, increase employee involvement and improve organisational communication. Management should also provide challenging tasks and objectives that will encourage their creativity. Encourage open communication among co-workers.

d) Recognition

The employees expressed low levels of satisfaction with regard to recognition. Management can improve this by praising their employees for a good work done. Giving employees a chance to make use of their abilities. Introduce recognition programs for employees. Allow employees more freedom and responsibility in their jobs by encouraging participation and suggestions made by employees.

e) Equitable Rewards

The results indicate that employees expressed low levels of satisfaction with equitable rewards. Management should develop reward strategies, policies and practices which will help employees increase their level of satisfaction and help the organisation to achieve new business goals and

support organisational and cultural change. Give rewards to individuals and ensure that the rewards are consistent with performance and that they are equitable.

f) Opportunities for Advancement

The results indicate that employees expressed that they are neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with their advancement opportunities. In order to bring about satisfaction among the employees, management should provide opportunities for education, training and development. Management should also implement career- pathing policies. Employees should be cross trained, multi-skilled so that when opportunities arise, they are ready to take up these opportunities.

7.4. Recommendations for Future Research

> Job Satisfaction and organisational commitment are factors that affect the Police Services, in that, employees in the Police Services experiences very low levels of satisfaction and commitment. So the topic can be further researched and the results can be beneficial to the organisation.

> Future studies should look at other dimensions of job satisfaction and organisational commitment other than the ones used in this study.

> This study only looked at one police station; future research can be undertaken among the different SAPS in the KwaZulu- Natal province to determine whether similar results were obtained.

7.5. **Conclusion**

Job satisfaction and organisational commitment plays a very crucial role in the SAPS. The commitment of a person to his/her organisation will depend on the satisfaction they derive from their jobs. The Police service plays a very important function to society, that is, it combats crime and ensures safety of its citizens. In order for them to continue to do so, the employees must derive satisfaction from their jobs and this will bring about commitment among the employees.

The recommendations and conclusions discussed in this chapter represent just some of the actions that could possibly be taken by SAPS to improve upon the areas of job satisfaction and organisational commitment. There are no doubt other recommendations that can be used successfully to enhance job satisfaction and organisational commitment of employees in the SAPS. This study will have an impact on the police services and will assist them to increase the satisfaction and commitment levels of the employees.

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APPENDIX 1

Dear Participant

I am a Master's student in Industrial Psychology at the University of Durban-Westville. As part of the masters programme, I am required to complete a research project (dissertation). Accordingly, I shall appreciate your participation in this study by completing the attached questionnaire. The questionnaire deals with your feelings towards your job, the teams you work in and the company you work for. Your honesty in responding to the questions is very important. As a result I have not requested for your name and can assure you that the information provided will remain confidential.

Your time and co – operation is highly appreciated.

Thank You

L. Paul

BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

Please place a cross (x) in the appropriate block

1. AGE

Under 20	
21-30	
31-40	
41-50	
51-60	
61& above	

2. GENDER

Male	
Female	

3. MARITAL STATUS

Married	
Single	
Divorced	

4. HOME LANGUAGE

English	
Afrikaans	
Zulu	
Xhosa	
Sotho	
Other (Specify	

5. RACE

White	
Black	
Indian	
Coloured	
Other (Specify)	

6. HIGHEST EDUCATION LEVEL

Below Matric	
Matric	
Diploma	
Degree	
Other (Specify	

7. LENGTH OF SERVICE IN YEARS

1-5	
6-10	
11-15	
16-20	
21-25	
26 & above	

8. Rank in organisation

Job Satisfaction

The following statements relate to how satisfied you are about that aspect of your job. There are no right or wrong answers. Respond to the statement, indicating the extent you are satisfied or dissatisfied with each of the following items using the following scales:

1	Very Dissatisfied	VD
2	Dissatisfied	D
3	Neutral	N
4	Satisfied	S
5	Very Satisfied	VS

Indicate how satisfied or dissatisfied you are by placing a cross (X) in the appropriate column.

On my present job, this is how I feel about.....

1. The chance to work alone on the job.

VD	D	N	VS	S

2. The chance to be "somebody" in the community

VD	D	N	VS	S

3. The way my boss handles his/her workers.

VD	D	N	VS	S

4. The way my job provides for steady employment

VD	D	N	VS	S

5. The way company policies are put into practice

VD	D	N	VS	S

6. The pay and the amount of work I do

VD	D	N	VS	S

7. The chances for advancement on the job

VD	D	N	VS	S

8. The chance to try my own methods of doing the job

VD	D	N	VS	S

9. The working conditions

VD	D	N	VS	S

10. The way my colleagues get along with each other

VD	D	N	VS	S

11. The praise I get for doing a good job

VD	D	N	VS	S

12. The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job

VD	D	N	VS	S

13. The chance to do different things from time to time

VD	D	N	VS	S

14. The chance to do things for other people

VD	D	N	VS	S

15. The way the firm is managed

VD	D	N	VS	S

16. The hours of work

VD	D	N	VS	S

17. The amount of variety in your job

VD	D	N	VS	S

18. My job security

VD	D	N	VS	S

19. The competence of my supervisor in making decisions

VD	D	N	VS	S

20. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities

VD	D	N	VS	S

21. The chance to tell others what to do

VD	D	N	VS	S

ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

The following statements relate to how committed you are to your job. There is no right or wrong answers. Respond to the statement, indicating the extent you agree or disagree with each statement by placing a cross (X) in the appropriate column using the following scales:

1	Strongly Disagree	SD
2	Disagree	D
3	Neutral	N
4	Agree	A
5	Strongly Agree	SA

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation

SD	D	N	A	SA

2. I enjoy discussing my organisation with people outside it

SD	D	N	A	SA

3. I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own

SD	D	N	A	SA

4. I think that I could easily become as attached to another organisation as I am to this one

SD	D	N	A	SA

5. I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organisation

SD	D	N	A	SA

6. I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organisation

SD	D	N	A	SA

7. This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me

SD	D	N	A	SA

8. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation

SD	D	N	A	SA

9. I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up

SD	D	N	A	SA

10. It would be very hard for me to leave my organisation right now, even if I wanted to

SD	D	N	A	SA

11. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my

organisation now

SD	D	N	A	SA

12. It would not be too costly for me to leave my organisation now

SD	D	N	A	SA

13. Staying with my organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire

SD	D	N	A	SA

14. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organisation

SD	D	N	A	SA

15. One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organisation would be the scarcity of available alternatives

SD	D	N	A	SA

16. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organisation is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice - another organisation may not match the overall benefits I have here

SD	D	N	A	SA

17. I think that people these days move from company to company too often

SD	D	N	A	SA

18. I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organisation

SD	D	N	A	SA

19. Jumping from organisation to organisation does not seem at all unethical to me

SD	D	N	A	SA

20. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organisation is that I believe

that loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain

SD	D	N	A	SA

21. If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere I would not feel it was right to

leave my organisation

SD	D	N	A	SA

20. I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organisation

SD	D	N	A	SA

23. Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organisation for

most of their careers

SD	D	N	A	SA

24. I do not think that wanting to be a 'company man' or 'company women' is

sensible anymore

SD	D	N	A	SA